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# Improving supervision by Chief Petty Officers in the Navy through formal training: a review and a proposal.

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Improving supervision by Chief Petty Officers in the Navy through formal training.

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# IMPROVING SUPERVISION BY CHIEF PETTY OFFICERS IN THE NAVY THROUGH FORMAL TRAINING: A REVIEW AND A PROPOSAL

A Thesis

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree Master of Science in Public Administration

BY

GEORGE AUGUSTINE O'SHEA JR., B.Sc.

The Ohio State University
1952

Approved by:

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Adviser

Thesis
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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

Industry and the military forces have always recognized the importance of supervision. The role of the supervisor at the lower level, however, has assumed greater significance in recent years -- seemingly in direct proportion to the expansions made in the two organizations. Industry has acknowledged this by providing its personnel with planned supervisory development, a major aspect of which has been formal classroom training. The target for the biggest share in supervisory training has been the industrial foremen, who comprise the largest group of supervisors in our industrial economy; and much credit for the success of our industrial expansion during World War II was attributed to the supervisory training which prepared these foremen for the huge task of planning, organizing, and controlling the work of the great influx of untrained workers to the defense industries. Postwar research into many phases of supervision, and management's increased realization that supervisory training pays good dividends, have been instrumental factors in maintenance of high priority in this field. The value of such training is adequately voiced by Fisher's recent statement that, "It is not just a coincidence that the better managed companies are spend-

# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

Industry and the military forces have always recognized the importance of supervision. The role of the supervisor at the lower level, however, has received relatively little in recent years -- seemingly in direct proportion to the expansions made in the two organizations.

Industry has acknowledged this by providing its personnel with planned supervisory development, a major aspect of which has been formal classroom training. The target for the largest share in supervisory training has been the industrial foreman, who comprises the largest group of supervisors in our industrial economy; and much credit for the success of our industrial expansion during World War II was attributed to the supervisory training which prepared these foremen for the huge task of planning, organizing, and controlling the work of the great influx of untrained workers in the defense industries. Foreman training into many phases of supervision, and management's increased realization that upper-level training must pass downward, have been instrumental factors in maintenance of high morale in this field. The value of such training is adequately stated by Fisher's recent statement that, "It is not just a coincidence that the better managed companies are speed-

ing a great deal of time and money in developing their management personnel at both the supervisory and executive level."[1]

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The Navy too has recognized the importance both of supervision and of training. Emphasis on foreman training in industry has suggested a comparative study of the supervisory training of the Chief Petty Officer, selected here as a tentative Navy counterpart to the industrial foreman. Recent literature[2] and personal observations of the author based on over ten years of naval experience aboard ship, in a training activity, and in an aircraft squadron, indicate that formal classroom training in supervision plays no large role in the preparatory experience of Chief Petty Officers. This present investigation, therefore, is a review of the supervisory training methods presently used in industry which might profitably be adopted for classroom training of Chief Petty Officers in the Navy.

A recent survey among seventy-five companies which are considered leaders in the field of industrial supervisory training, revealed that the vast majority now

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[1] Waldo E. Fisher, Development of Supervisory Personnel, Bulletin No. 20, Industrial Relations Section, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, 1951, p. 5.

[2] "Leadership Program," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, October 1948, pp. 17-21.

ing a great deal of time and money in developing their management personnel at both the supervisory and executive level."[1]

## HISTORY OF THE PROBLEM

The army has had considerably more experience than any other supervisor and or training. Japanese on foreman training in industry has undergone a comparative study of the supervisory training of the Chief Petty Officer, selected main as a training key counterpart to the industrial foreman. Among interviews[2] and personal observations of the author based on over ten years of naval experience under this in a training activity, and in an aircraft squadron, indicate that formal training training in supervisory plays an large role in the psychology supervisors of Chief Petty Officers. This present investigation, therefore, is a review of the supervisory training methods currently used in industry which might profitably be adopted for civilian training of Chief Petty Officers in the Navy.

A recent survey among American-Flow companies which conducted leaders in the field of industrial supervisory training, revealed that the most majority one

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[1] Ralph C. Flanner, Development of Industrial Personnel, Bulletin no. 20, Industrial Relations Institute, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, 1952, p. 2.

[2] "Leadership Program" U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, Autumn 1960, pp. 17-22.

acknowledge it as a continuing responsibility.[3] This study accordingly is concerned with Chief Petty Officer training within local commands, since these are the most feasible locations for continuous training. The term local command refers to a Navy unit such as an aircraft squadron, ship, or station.

TERMINOLOGY

Clarification of terminology lends further definition to the problem. Supervisor has been defined as any person who is in formal control over others, irrespective of his high or low status in the hierarchy.[4] As used herein, only those two or three lower levels of supervisors, frequently designated as line supervisors, are considered. Industry has usually referred to the foreman as a supervisor in this category; hence, the two terms are used interchangeably.

The Chief Petty Officer appears to be the nearest Navy counterpart to the industrial foreman. His position is the top enlisted grade in the Navy, above which come the warrant officer and then the commissioned ranks. Many of the references to the Chief Petty Officer might apply to petty officers of lower grades, since they too are super-

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[3] Conference Board Report, Developments in Supervisory Training, Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 124, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. New York, p. 6.

[4] John M. Pfiffner, The Supervision of Personnel, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1951, p. 6.

acknowledge it as a continuing responsibility.[3] This study accordingly is concerned with chief petty officer training within local commands, since these are the most feasible locations for continuous training. The term local command refers to a fixed unit such as an aircraft squadron, ship, or station.

Terminology

Stratification of personnel leads further definition to the problem. Supervisors have been defined as any person who is in formal control over others. Irrespective of his high or low status in the hierarchy,[4] in naval parlance, only those few or more lower levels of supervisors, frequently designated as line supervisors, are considered. Industry has usually referred to the foreman as a supervisor in this category; hence, the two terms are used interchangeably.

The chief petty officer appears to be the nearest very counterpart to the industrial foreman. His position is also too maligned among in the navy, above which come the warrant officers and then the commissioned ranks. Many of the references to the chief petty officer might apply to junior officers of lower grades, since they too are supervi-

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[3] Conference Board Report, Developments in Supervisory Training, Studies in Personnel Policy, no. 106, Nat'l Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, N. Y. 1949.

[4] John R. Griffiths, The Supervision of Personnel, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1951, p. 6.

visors in many instances. However, for purposes of this study, they have been excluded.

Supervision connotes the development of individual strengths and the direction of activities of a group in such a way as to effect improvement in an organization of which the supervisor is a part. Rather than the performance of a mechanical task, the term implies the coordination of the efforts of one or more subordinates. As such, supervision is often labelled administrative leadership and is accompanied with authority to make decisions which will affect the work procedures of others. The extent of such authority and the qualifications demanded, vary with the position of the supervisor in the hierarchical structure. In analyzing the requirements of supervisors at the foreman level, one source lists the three major areas of knowledge and responsibility as: (1) job skill, (2) job management and (3) man management.[5] Job skill includes the technical skills, knowledges, and abilities which the supervisor needs for the job. Job management responsibilities include planning, organizing, and controlling the work for all of the subordinates. Man management includes the training and handling of people. The term supervision was purposely selected in lieu of leadership; the connotation intended

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[5] Robert D. Loken and Earl P. Strong, Supervision in Business and Industry, Funk and Wagnalls Company, New York, 1949, p. 9.

vision in many instances. However, for purposes of this study, they have been excluded.

Supervision concerns the accomplishment of institutional objectives and the direction of activities of a group in such a way as to effect improvement in an organization or within the supervision in a part. Rather than the performance of a managerial task, one tries inspire the coordination of the efforts of one or more subordinates. As such, supervision is often informal administrative leadership and is accomplished with authority to make decisions which will affect the work procedures of others. The extent of such authority and the qualifications demanded, vary with the position of the supervisor in the hierarchical structure. In comparing the responsibilities of supervisors at the lowest level, the common lists are three major areas of knowledge and responsibility are: (1) job skill, (2) job management and (3) men management.[7] Job skill includes the technical skills, knowledge, and abilities which the supervisor needs for the job. Job management responsibilities include planning, organizing, and controlling the work for all or the subordinates. Men management includes the maintaining and meeting of needs. The "men" dimension was personally selected in lieu of leadership the conceptual terms

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[7] Robert D. Lohan and Carl J. Larson, Supervision in Business and Industry, Book one Typical Company, New York, 1957, p. 9.

is "leadership in the work situation" rather than the usual concept of military leadership. Separation of the two is admittedly difficult in the execution of the Chief Petty Officer's duties; however, the emphasis in this study is on the work situation.

TRAINING POLICY WITHIN LOCAL COMMANDS

The Navy spends a large proportion of its time and energy in training, for the success or failure of any of its assigned missions may depend on its operational readiness, as determined by its training. Unit training is administered by the higher echelons; individual training within the unit is directed largely by the local command. Since wide discretion in the selection and emphasis of areas of individual training for officers and men within a command is allowed the commanding officer of the squadron, ship, or station, consideration might be given to this present study by those commands whose Chief Petty Officers are noticeably poor supervisors.

OBJECTIVES

The ultimate objective of the study is a proposal for improving supervision of Chief Petty Officers through formal training at the local level. In achieving this, the relative merits of formal training as compared to on-the-job instruction, experience, and other methods of supervisory

in "leadership in the even eighties" rather than the usual concern of military leadership. Impression of the two is additionally difficult in the examination of the chief army officer's military leaders, the methods in this study is on the most classified.

Problem Solving Skills Under Pressure

The Army adopts a basic orientation of its time and energy in training, for the success or failure of any of its assigned missions may depend on its operational readiness, as determined by its training. This training is conducted at by the lower echelons individual training within the unit is directed largely by the level commander. Those with discretion in the selection are responsible to areas of initiative and flexibility for officers and non-rights a commander is allowed the commander officer of the expense, only, or training, commanding officers may be given to him present units to have commands since chief army officers are modificably the training.

Objectives

The ultimate objective of the study is a proposal for improved assessments of chief army officers training combat training at the level level. In addition this, the principle study of power behavior as applied to problem-solving leadership, decisions, and other methods of supervisory

development, are not debated. Other objectives include a determination of the nature of supervision and a review of the methods and effectiveness of industrial supervisory training.

METHODOLOGY

In Chapter II support for comparison of the Chief Petty Officer with the foreman is sought, using the previously mentioned definition of supervision as a basis. The comparison is extended to a historical review of evolving concepts of these two types of supervisors and their supervisory training.

Chapter III describes the responsibility for the various types of training in the Navy and considers the influence that the Bureau of Personnel exerts over formal schooling within its authority and over local training throughout the Navy.

In Chapter IV the nature of supervision and the practicability of its acquisition through training, are discussed. The views held by research workers on the one side, and by military and industrial men on the other, are considered.

In Chapter V the methods and techniques used in foreman training which might be applicable to Chief Petty Officer training are described in fairly lengthy detail.

experiments, are not needed. These objectives imply a thorough study of the future of supervision and a review of the nature and effectiveness of industrial supervisory training.

Outline of

In Chapter II support for consideration of the chief fault critics with the foreman is sought, using the previously published criticisms of supervision as a basis. The conclusion is reached that a satisfactory review of evolving concepts of those the types of supervisors and their supervisory training.

Chapter III describes the responsibility for the successful study of training in the Navy and indicates the influence that the concept of personnel course over formal schooling which has authority the over formal training throughout the Navy.

In Chapter IV the nature of supervision and the practicability of its modification through training, are discussed. The views held by research workers in the fields, and by military and industrial men in the Navy, are considered.

In Chapter V the methods and techniques used in foreman training which might be applicable to Chief Petty Officer training are described in fairly inclusive detail.

Chapter VI concludes the study with a brief summary, accompanied by conclusions and recommendations.

SOURCES OF MATERIAL AND LIMITATIONS

A wide variety of the abundant material available on foremen served as reference material for the historical development of the foreman, supervisory training, and the effectiveness of training methods. Surveys of supervisory training by the National Industrial Conference Board and bulletins on supervisory personnel prepared by the Industrial Relations Section of the California Institute of Technology, were consulted frequently for the latest developments in supervisory training. These were supplemented by recent information from periodicals dealing with the approaches being made to supervisory training problems. A recent thesis by Skells,[6] and Leiter's "The Foreman in Industrial Relations,"[7] were helpful in establishing the basis for comparison of the foreman with the Chief Petty Officer.

Limitations must be placed on the documentation of the historical development of the Chief Petty Officer and his local training, since a lack of textbooks or surveys was encountered. However, the present status of the Chief

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[6] James F. Skells, "A Comparison Between the Position of the Foreman in Industry and the Non-commissioned Officer in the Army," Unpublished Masters Thesis, Ohio State University, 1950.

[7] Robert D. Leiter, The Foreman In Industrial Relations, Columbia University Press, New York, 1948.

Chapter XI concludes the study with a brief summary, accompanied by conclusions and recommendations.

## SOURCES OF MATERIAL AND LIMITATIONS

A wide variety of the available material available on foremen served as reference material for the theoretical development of the foreman, supervisory training, and the effectiveness of training programs. Surveys of supervisory training by the national Chamberlain Foundation Board and bulletins on supervisory personnel prepared by the Industrial Relations Section of the California Institute of Technology, were consulted frequently for the latest developments in supervisory training. These were supplemented by recent information from periodicals dealing with the supervisory training made to supervisory training programs. A recent thesis by Tsaih,[6] and Lahiri's "The Foreman in Industrial Relations,"[7] were helpful in establishing the basis for consideration of the foreman with the union during strikes.

Limitations must be placed on the determination of the historical development of the union early efforts and the local training, since a lack of records or surveys was encountered. However, the present status of the union

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[6] James F. Tsaih, "A Comparison between the training of the foreman in industry and the non-commissioned officer in the army," Unpublished Masters Thesis, Ohio State University, 1950.

[7] Robert L. Lahiri, The Foreman in Industrial Relations, Columbia University Press, New York, 1950.

Petty Officer and his training are based on the author's personal experience, consultation with his colleagues, recent Navy periodicals, and official publications, and are considered reliable for the purposes of this investigation.

## CHAPTER II

## A COMPARISON STUDY OF THE FOREMAN WITH THE CHIEF PETTY OFFICER

### BASIS FOR COMPARISON

Most authorities on the subject of supervision refer to the foreman as a key man in industry. They base this belief mainly on the fact that he is the connecting link between the executive and the worker; and that, because of him, the work gets done. In much the same light the Chief Petty Officer has been referred to as the "backbone" of the Navy; he represents the connecting link between the officer hierarchy and the worker group composed of the lower enlisted ratings. A conclusion reached as a result of a recent comparison study of the position of the foreman with the non-commissioned officer in the Army, lends further support to the comparison of the foreman with the Chief Petty Officer (since the Chief Petty Officer corresponds to the non-commissioned officer used in the study). When tested against twelve ingredients of a sound personnel administration, the author concluded that the foreman and the non-commissioned officer occupy the same relative positions in the line of authority.[1]

Further basis for comparison can be found by listing the functions of the supervisors under the three areas of

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[1] Skells, op. cit., p. 58.

CHAPTER II

# A COMPARISON STUDY OF THE FOREMAN'S VIEW THE CHIEF PETTY OFFICER

## PART ONE: INTRODUCTION

Most authorities on the subject of supervision refer to the foreman as a key man in industry. They base this belief mainly on the fact that he is the connecting link between the executives and the workers and thus, because of this, the work gets done. In much the same light the Chief Petty Officer has been referred to as the "backbone" of the Navy; he represents the connecting link between the officer element and the worker group composed of the lower enlisted ratings. A comparison prompted by a recall of a recent conversation among of the problems of the foreman with the non-commissioned officer in the Navy, leads further support to the comparison of the foreman with the Chief Petty Officer (since the Chief Petty Officer corresponds to the non-commissioned officer used in the study). Thus taking against twelve interviews of a varied occupational administration, the author concludes that the foreman and the non-commissioned officer occupy the same relative positions in the line of authority.[1]

Further basis for comparison can be found by listing the functions of the supervisors under the three areas of

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[1] Davis, op. cit., p. 70.

responsibility which were listed in the aforementioned definition of supervision (i.e., job skill, job management, and man mangement), and checking the functions of the Chief Petty Officers against them. The functions listed are those determined by a Philadelphia Company which has been conducting supervisory conferences over a period of years and are considered representative of foremen functions in general.[2]

Functions under the category of job skill will not be listed since they vary for each type of job. Needless to say, the skill, knowledge, and abilities required of a foreman of machinists, carpenters, etc. are comparable to those needed for a Chief Petty Officer machinist, carpenter, etc., in the performance of a job. The "United States Navy Occupational Handbook"[3] and "Table of Occupational Relationships"[4] provide validity for this comparison by relating job skills required for specialties in the Navy with those similarly required in industrial jobs. The former is a manual for civilian guidance counselors and Navy classification officers and is a detailed factual presentation of all phases of the Navy's occupational structure. Vocational briefs covering the major job families in the Navy are pre-

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[2] Fisher, op. cit., pp. 16-19.

[3] U.S. Navy, United States Navy Occupational Handbook.

[4] Bureau of Naval Personnel, Table of Occupational Relationships, Part 1, NavPers 15834, June, 1951.

responsibility which were linked to the aforementioned
definition of supervision (i.e., job skill, job management,
and job management), and describing the functions of the chief
duty officers against them. The functions listed are those
determined by a Philadelphia Company which had been conduct-
ing a survey and research over a period of years and are
considered representative of General Functions in general.[2]

Questions about the ability or job skill will not
be listed since they vary for each type of job. Questions
on age, sex skill, knowledge, and abilities involved or a
lesser of qualities, experience, etc. are necessary to
know needed for a total duty officer qualities, experience,
etc., in the performance of a job. The "Series Tables and
Educational Questions"[3] and "Table of Occupational Tele-
phone Jobs"[4] provide ability for job qualifications by relat-
ing job title required for specialties in the duty with
those similarly required in industrial jobs. The Chief
is a method for civilian guidance counselors and duty plan-
ticipation officers and in a detailed factual presentation of
all phases of the duty's occupational structure. Functional
tasks covering the major job functions in the duty are pre-

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[2] Farmer, op. cit., pp. 11-13.

[3] O.J. Harvey, Julian Davies and Muzafer Sherif, Inter-
view.

[4] Bureau of Naval Personnel, Table of Occupational
Qualifications, Item 1, Service Jobs, 1954, 1951.

sented, and include the duties and responsibilities, specific tasks performed, work assignments, qualifications and preparation, training given, and related civilian jobs for each. (See Appendix I for attached sample). The second publication correlates the relationships of civilian occupations to Navy specialties by matching Navy Job Classification codes and titles with corresponding numbers and titles given in the "Dictionary of Occupational Titles" for civilian jobs.

The functions of job management, often called managerial functions, are:

1. Planning each day's work in advance.
2. Coordinating the activities of the employees and the work process.
3. Inspecting work, materials, etc.
4. Seeing that equipment is maintained in good condition.
5. Safeguarding the health and safety of the employees.
6. Seeing that working conditions are kept up to standard (good housekeeping).
7. Maintaining quality.
8. Conserving supplies and materials (waste prevention).
9. Keeping productions and other records.
10. Preparing reports.
11. Cooperating with other executives.

Barker, who lacking the skills and responsibilities, specific to basic performance, more responsible, qualifications and preparation, maintain view, and related activities jobs for each. This dynamic I too stressed equally. The second position correlates the relationship of civilian responsible to Army specialists of rotating Army job classifications under his claim with corresponding members and civilian view in the "Dictionary of Occupational Titles" for civilian jobs.

The functions of job management, often called managerial functions, are:

1. Planning work cycle work in sequence.

2. Coordinating the activities of the employees and the work process.

3. Inspecting work, materials, etc.

4. Seeing that equipment is maintained in good condition.

5. Safeguarding the health and safety of the employees.

6. Seeing that working conditions are kept up to standard (good housekeeping).

7. Maintaining quality.

8. Conserving supplies and materials (waste prevention).

9. Fixing productions and other records.

10. Preparing reports.

11. Cooperating with other supervisors.

12. Assuming responsibility for errors and mistakes of their subordinates.

13. Passing on to their superiors pertinent information about employees and their work.

Without listing these functions again, the author, from past personal experience aboard ship, in a training command, and in an aircraft squadron, notes that the variously employed Chief Petty Officers perform these same general functions, although sometimes in greater or less degree. These observations are further supported by reference to the "United States Navy Occupational Handbook" which mentions some of these same job management functions for the Navy Petty Officer. It specifically states that the petty officers in the higher grades perform the more responsible duties of supervision and instruction, thus paralleling the foreman's job management functions of planning, organizing, and controlling the work of subordinates.

Another Navy source giving written analysis of the supervisory functions of the Chief Petty Officer classifies them under five headings -- knowledge of: the job, policy, how to handle men, job methods, and instructional methods.[5] An extract of these five classes of supervisory knowledge required by the Navy supervisor is included as Appendix II,

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[5] Bureau of Naval Personnel, The Shipboard Training Manual, Standards and Curriculum Division, March, 1948, pp. 8-9.

12. Assuming responsibility for errors and absence of their subordinates.

13. Reading or in their supervisory performance information about employees and their work.

Various listing these functions again, the author, from past personal experience above, and in a training command, and in an elsewhere assignment, notes that the vertically employed Chief Petty Officers perform these same general functions, although sometimes to greater or less degree. These observations are further supported by reference to the "Guides Petty Navy Occupational Handbook" which mentions some of these same job management functions for the Navy Petty Officer. It specifically states that the petty officers in the rating groups perform the more responsible duties of supervision and instruction, thus justifying the foremen's job management functions of planning, organizing, and controlling the work of subordinates.

Another Navy source giving written analysis of the supervisory functions of the Chief Petty Officer classifies them under five headings -- knowledge of the job, policy, use of people, job methods, and instructional methods.[3] An extract of these five classes of supervisory knowledge required of the Navy supervisor is included as Appendix II.

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[3] Bureau of Naval Personnel, The Chief Petty Officer Manual, Training and Instructional Division, Washington, D.C., p. 3-7.

since it adds continued evidence to the similarity in job management functions as listed above, and the man management functions which follow.

The final category, and the one often considered the most important, is man management. It includes the following functions:

1. Selecting new employees in line with the hiring policies of the company and the limits of their authority.

2. Helping to induct new employees.

3. Interpreting company policies and regulations to their employees.

4. Training their workers to perform their jobs safely and efficiently.

5. Giving orders and assigning duties and responsibilities.

6. Maintaining discipline.

7. Handling complaints and grievances.

8. Building employee morale.

9. Keeping their employees informed about proposed changes that will affect him.

10. Letting employees know how they are "getting along."

11. Looking after the comforts of their employees.

12. Developing employees by means of training, transfers, and promotion.

13. Securing employee cooperation.

14. Helping their employees who are in trouble.

allows it made employees responsible to the satisfaction in job management functions as listed above, and the main management functions which follow.

The final category, and the one often considered the most important, is man management. It includes the following functions:

1. Selecting new employees in line with the strategic policies of the company and the limits of their authority.

2. Helping to instruct new employees.

3. Interpreting company policies and regulations to their employees.

4. Evaluating their workers to determine their job skills and efficiency.

5. Giving orders and assigning duties and responsibilities.

6. Motivating discipline.

7. Building morale and performance.

8. Maintaining employee morale.

9. Keeping their employees informed about proposed changes that will affect them.

10. Letting employees know how they are "getting along".

11. Looking after the welfare of their employees.

12. Terminating employees by means of training, transfers, and promotion.

13. Leading employee conferences.

14. Helping their employees who are in trouble.

One acquainted with Navy life will note that with the possible exception of the first function, the Chief Petty Officer controls, in much the same degree, these same man management (leadership) functions. The unit Chief Petty Officer is responsible for inducting the new enlisted man to the ship, squadron, or station. He interprets local regulations for the newcomer, trains him to perform safely and efficiently, gives orders, maintains discipline, handles complaints, and is responsible for building his morale. Likewise, the Chief Petty Officer informs the enlisted man of the "latest word", lets him know how he is progressing, looks after his personal comforts, aids in his development by means of training and recommendations for promotion, secures his cooperation, and aids him when he is in trouble.

The foregoing analysis provides continued validity for the analogy made in 1919 that the "foremen are the non-commissioned officers of industry."[6] The above listed functions of supervisors are general rather than specific - necessarily so since they vary among companies and seem in a constant state of change. In tracing the history of the foreman and Chief Petty Officer it will be shown how and why some of these functions have changed.

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[6] Leyton S. Hawkins, Foreman Training Courses, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 36, Washington, 1919, foreward.

The appearance only many life will note that with the gradual evacuation of the first Tagalog, the Chief Duty Officer controls, in some the same myers, there same man management (leadership) functions. The only Chief Duty Officer is responsible for inspecting the men military and so the duty, squadrons, or sleeping. He interprets local regulations for the personnel. Evelyn him by perhaps safety and efficiently, give orders, maintains discipline, maintain morale, and is responsible for building the morale. Likewise, the Chief Duty Officer informs the military man of the "latest word", like his room has to be prepared, lines after the personal clothes, also is his development by means of training and recommendations for promotion, reserve his cooperation, and also also when he is in trouble.

The foregoing analysis provides sufficient validity for the society made in this case by "Tagalog are the socialization officers of industry." The above listed functions of industrialists are general rather than specific - necessarily so since they vary among companies and even in a constant state of change. In studying the history of the Tagalog and Chief Duty Officer it will be shown how and why some of these functions have changed.

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[1] John C. Leslie, Tagalog Training Course, Federal Bureau for Vocational Guidance, Bulletin No. 16, Washington, 1919, (Mimeoed).

FOREMAN - PAST AND PRESENT

The abundance of literature about the foreman seems to describe him by two methods; one, a personality description based on the way he handles people, and two, a functional description based on his duties. Both descriptions are herein combined and presented as "a typical foreman." A composite description is important since it determined to a great extent the content and evolution of foreman training courses.

Several suggestions for the stages of development in the evolution of today's foreman have been offered, but the one which seems most applicable in this comparison study is the three-stage development where the emphasis on the basic qualification for a foreman changed from physical competence, to technical competence, and more recently to human relations competence.

The foreman of the first, or physical competence stage, was the owner of the company or his direct representative in the shop. Grimshaw has described him as follows: "The old type of foreman - now happily almost extinct - was often little better than the plantation overseer in the slavery days before our Civil War; he was not far removed from the two-fisted mate of the windjammer."[7] His

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[7] Robert Grimshaw, Foreman Past and Present, Biddle Business Publications, Inc., New York, 1921, p. 25.

## Conclusion - Why Are Models?

The abundance of literature about the Foreman Image is cumulative also by the additive one, a personality description based on the way he behaves toward, and his, a functional description based on his duties. Both descriptions are merely combined and presented as "a typical Foreman." A composite description is important since it provides us to a point about the content and evolution of Foreman training courses.

Personal suggestions for the improvement of development in the evolution of Foreman have been offered, but the non-motivation seems more applicable in this conclusion. Study in the three-step development shows the evolution to the basic qualifications for a Foreman changed from physical concerns, to technical competence, and more recently to human relations concerns.

The Foreman of the first, or physical concerns phase, was the owner of the company or his direct representative in the shop. Hoslemo has described him as follows: "The old type of Foreman - one typically almost extinct - was rather little better than the classmate interested in the factory than either the first two in was not far removed from the non-first-3 main of the straightness."[7] His

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[7] Robert Hoslemo, Foreman Past and Present, Dallas National Publications, Inc., New York, 1951, p. 3.

functions were all inclusive; he hired his own workers, decided their rates of pay, imposed his own regulations, determined his own standards of conduct and performance, and dismissed them when it was his whim to do so.[8] Operating under the belief in "rule by divine right," the foreman relied heavily on discipline as the means for promoting production. One source states, "years ago the conception of a good foreman was a person who could make his subordinates produce, and the meaning of the word 'make' was often interpreted quite literally. His function was to force production."[9]

The second stage, that which emphasized technical competence, occurred near the end of the 19th century when mass production methods and large concerns came into being.[10] The foreman of this era was not entirely devoid of the driver-type characteristics of his predecessor; however, he was chosen more on the basis of his technical skill than on his physical competence, and he was told, but not forced, to become a "leader" rather than a "driver". In 1920 Ordway Tead quoted Henry S. Dennison, president of

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[8] W. D. Scott and R. C. Clothier, Personnel Management, A. W. Shaw Company, Chicago and New York, 1925, pp. 438-446.

[9] Edwin E. Ghiselli and Clarence W. Brown, Personnel and Industrial Psychology, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1948, pp. 360-361.

[10] Skells, op. cit., p. 7.

Democrats were all cautious; he blamed his own workers, backed their rates of pay, improved his own negotiations, maintained his own standards of conduct and performance, and discussed them when it was his wish to do so.[8] Operating under the motto of "rule by divine right," the foreman relied heavily on discipline as the means for promoting productivity. The worker stated, "years ago the conception of a good foreman was a person who could make his subordinates produce, and the meaning of the word 'boss' was often interpreted quite literally. His function was to force production."[9]

The second stage, that which emphasized technical competence, occurred when the war of the 1870's caused many production methods and large concerns came into being.[10] The foreman of this era was not entirely devoid of the union-type characteristics of his predecessor; however, he was chosen more on the basis of his technical skill than on his physical competence, and he was hired, not promoted, to become a "leader" rather than a "driver". In 1890 Carroll Daniel Wright, U. Henshaw, President of

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8. D. Scott and F. C. Clothier, Personnel Management, p. 8, from Cox Log, Unions and the Law, 1917, pp. 43-45.

9. John R. Commons and Charles R. Brown, Personnel and Industrial Relations, Macmillan and Co., New York, 1924, pp. 300-301.

10. Cecily, op. cit., p. 7.

the Dennison Manufacturing Company, as stating that he doubted that there could not be found some sample of the "bellowing-bull" type of foremanship in every factory.[11] A typical foreman of this stage, however, is adequately described as follows:

> With rare exceptions foremen as a class are men of mature years with well-established habits and with much practical experience to their credit. Reliable statistics show that the typical foreman has climbed up from the ranks, and that he has had little formal schooling beyond that required by law. In fact, a considerable percentage of them somehow escaped even complying with the law, their education, barring limited knowledge of the three R's, being obtained in the 'school of hard knocks'.[12]

During this second stage there appeared major changes to the functions of the foreman which seriously affected his position in industry. Leiter states, "The loss of the powers and responsibilities of the foreman was the result of technological, organizational, and functional development of industry."[13]

Whereas the foreman was in complete control of his production schedule until shortly before World War I, the application of the principle of division of labor with the

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[11] Ordway Tead, "The Problem of Incentives and Output," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, May, 1920, pp. 170-179.

[12] D. J. MacDonald, Executive Training for Foremen, Ronald Press Company, New York, 1920, p. 2.

[13] Leiter, op. cit., p. 34.

the Tawney Manufacturing Company, we stated that he doubted that there could ever be found even remnants of the "Galveston-Dallas" type of Taylorism in every factory.[11] A typical foreman of this stamp, however, is unmistakably described in Tolman:

> His days exceptions rounds in a class are men of mature years with well-established habits and with such practical experience to their credit. Reliable reliability some that the typical foreman has climbed up from the ranks, and that he has little formal schooling beyond that required by law. In fact, a considerable percentage of these shrewd sagacious men supplying with his law, their education, having limited knowledge of the outer life, being originated in the 'school of hard knocks'.[12]

During this second stage time supervisor emerges as the functions of the foreman with seriously attempts the position in industry. Latter stages, "The loss of the foreman and responsibilities of the foreman was the result of technological, organizational, and functional development of industry."[13]

Towards the foreman was in complete control of his production economic unit shortly before World War I, the application of the principle of division of labor with the

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[11] Sidney Webb, "The Problem of Improving our Output," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, May, 1920, pp. 219-220.

[12] F. L. Bradshaw, Industrial Training for Foreman, Small Arms Company, New York, 1920, p. 2.

[13] Lafer, op. cit., p. 30.

resultant use of specialists and staff personnel, and the growth and complexity of industrial organization, removed many of the production functions from him.

Centralization of control over production was necessarily followed in the 1920's by the advent of the personnel department in order to maintain uniformity of personnel policies throughout the factory. The supervisor now shared the right to hire and fire with the personnel department, and in many cases he made only recommendations regarding these two functions.[14]

Loss of his power to fire, the advent of the union shop steward or shop committeeman as a buffer between himself and the worker, and the expanded influence of staff and functional departments, have altered the job and status of the foreman. One study has found:

> These long term trends in the foremen's responsibilities and authority may be summarized as: (1) a drop in the foreman's authority (2) a drop in the foreman's responsibility for making policies (3) a rise in the foreman's responsibility for executing policies.[15]

This does not mean that the foreman has lost the position as a key man; rather does it shift the emphasis from technical competence as the basic requirement for a foreman, to human relations competence.

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[14] Ibid., pp. 33-34.

[15] Sumner H. Slicter and others, "Report and Findings of a Panel of the N.W.L.B. in Certain Disputes Involving Supervisors," 1945, p. 41.

President was or specialists who dealt personally and his advent and complexity of industrial organization, removed many of the production functions from him.

Centralization of control over production was necessarily followed in the 1920's by the advent of the personnel department in order to minimize antipathy or personnel policies incompatible the factory. The supervisor was thereby the right to hire and fire with the personnel department, and in many cases he was only responsibilities separating these two functions.[14]

Now of his power to fire, the threat of the union may showed be only considerable as a buffer between himself and the worker, and the supposed influence on wages and functional jurisdiction, now without the job was shorn of the foreman. The study has found:

> These long term trends in the foreman's responsibilities and authority may be summarized as: (1) a drop in the foreman's authority (2) a drop in the foreman's responsibility for making policies (3) a rise in the foreman's responsibility for executing policies.[15]

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[14] Ibid., pp. 13-14.

[15] Thomas F. Tilleor and others, "Impact and Training of a Panel of the S.F.C.A. in Certain Steppes Industrial Industries," 1963, p. 12.

There are many who feel that we are now on the threshold of this third stage in the development of the foreman - the human relations phase. Some organizations have selected candidates with little or no job skill, but with excellent qualifications for training and handling people, on the basis that it is easier to teach the required job skill than the management and training skills.[16] This is far from being a widely used procedure, but it does emphasize a point which current literature indicates emphatically -- that training foremen in human relations has almost become a necessity. One source indicates a prevalent belief among many companies:

> As we review industry and management and especially the case material assembled in the literature, we see that the handling of manpower has almost invariably been the most important factor in the problem involved. Facing an age of competition, we see plainly that the industry which excells in manpower control, i.e., in the development and utilization of the human element, is bound to win out.[17]

The present day foreman is apparently being forced by legislation, social pressure, and other forces, to consider the human element more carefully in his dealings with subordinates. The use of physical force is almost entirely omitted, but there is still great emphasis placed on his technical competence. A recent survey on his educational

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[16] Loken and Strong, op. cit., p. 9.

[17] Lillian M. Gilbreth and Alice R. Cook, The Foreman In Manpower Management, 1947, pp. 4-5.

They are more than just an art for an the survival of this Delta stage in the development of the Ferguson - the human relations phase. Some organizations have selected managers with little or no job skill, but with excellent qualifications for training and handling people, on the basis that it is easier to teach the required job skill than the management and training skills.[16] This is far from being a widely used procedure, but it does emphasize a point which serves therefore indicates emphatically -- that selecting Ferguson in human relations has almost become a necessity. One author indicates a generally held belief among companies:

> As we review industry and management and especially the case material assembled in the literature, we see that the condition of management has almost invariably been the most important factor in the problem involved. Faced with one of dissatisfaction, we see plainly that the industry which excells in management method, i.e., in the development and utilization of the human element, is bound to win out.[17]

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[16] Lesser and Storrow, op. cit., p. 7.

[17] Gilliss, Gilbreth and Allen A. Cook, The Problem in Foreman Management, 1921, pp. 1-5.

background reveals it to be higher than his predecessor, but still relatively low. A check of statistics in four companies recently revealed that among the present day foremen, about half of them did not continue their education beyond grammar school, only 30% graduated from high school, and out of 12% attending college, only 3.4% received degrees.[18]

HISTORY OF FOREMAN TRAINING

Foremanship training was the third phase of the broad field of American industrial training and did not become prevalent until World War I. Early emphasis was on training of executives and technical experts, and this was accomplished through colleges and technical schools. Next, the training of workers became important in the 1880's and attained national attention in the passage of the Federal Vocational Education Act.[19]

The earliest type of foreman training, although not formally designed as such, is individual coaching on the job. Uris indicated the prevalent lack of formal training for the supervisor at the beginning of this century by stating, "Not many years ago there was only one way to learn how to be a foreman -- or how to be a better one.

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[18] Fisher, op. cit., p. 6.

[19] Federal Board for Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 36, op. cit., p. 55.

background prevails it is to be blame than his predecessors, but still relatively low. A study of activities in four schools reveals results based among the parents des Ecoles, Lycée Saint Louis and Lycée Montjoie which activity in-volved primarily school, only 20% graduated from high school, and out of 127 attending college, only 1.5% received de-grees.[16]

Effects of Foreign Training

Professionals trained abroad was the ruling cause of the broad field of American industrial training and did not be-come prevalent until World War I. Early workers had no training of executives and technical experts, and this was accomplished through colleges and technical schools. Now, the training of workers became important in the 1920's and assuming national attention in the problems of the Fater-al Vocational Commission 1917.[17]

The earliest type of foreign training, although not formally designed as such, is individual observing on the job. This indicated the prevalent lack of formal training for the newcomers at the beginning of their century by stating, "All many years ago there was only one way to learn how to be a foreman -- or one to be to a valid ren-

[16] Fisher, op. cit., p. 5.

[17] Stated Board for Vocational Education, Initiale Ex- 3th, op. cit., p. 35.

That was to get a foreman's job and practise it."[20] The shortcomings of this trial and error method were realized, especially as functionalization and specialization became prevalent under expanded and mass production techniques. Some pioneer efforts were directed towards improving supervision through formal training, but they were limited to the larger companies because of the expense involved and because the training methods were still in the experimental stage. Of those instituted, the methods of presentation used most commonly were lecture, conference, and text study. In paralleling the typical foreman of the time, the emphasis in the training was placed on cost efficiency and technical competence in the interests of greater production. The difficulties experienced in foreman training up to World War I were "in connection with mistaken or undefined aims, unsuitable instructors, improper conditions, work based on unsuitable educational theory, and unorganized work."[21]

World War I provided the first significant impetus to foreman training. Postwar interest and activity in this field were continued because the value of properly organized training and its definite results were demonstrated and because the "weak link" (the foreman) in the indus-

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[20] Auren Uris, Improved Foremanship, Macmillan Company, New York, 1948, preface.

[21] Federal Board For Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 55.

that was to pay a reasonable job and produce it."[20] The shortcomings of this trial and error method were realized, especially as rationalization and specialization focus developed under expanded and mass production techniques. Some pioneer efforts were directed towards improving supervision through formal training, but they were limited by the larger unexplored problems of the organization and because the training methods were still in the experimental stage. Of those instituted, the methods of systematized work were commonly were lectures, conference, and task study. In penalizing the typical foreman of the time, the emphasis in the training was placed on cost efficiency and technical competence in the interests of greater production. The difficulties experienced in foreman training up to World War I were "in connection with attempts to unsettled plan, unsuitable instructors, improper conditions, work based on unsuitable educational theory, and unsymptized work."[21]

During War I provided the first significant impetus to foreman training. Partner industry and activity in this field were significant because the value of properly trained foremen and its definite results were recognized and became the "work line" (the foreman) in the industrial

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[20] Aubrey Dyle, Improved Foremanship, Wentling Company, New York, 1920, preface.

[21] Federal Board for Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 14.

trial chain had to be strengthened so that production methods would be efficient to meet anticipated foreign competition.[22]

Some indication of the prevalence of foremanship training courses in this period is given in two surveys taken in the 1920's. The Department of Manufacture revealed knowledge of 105 foremanship courses between June, 1924 and June, 1925, 324 courses in the following year, and 933 in 1926-1927 period.[23] Another survey conducted in 4,409 small plants, each employing 250 workers or less, and in 1,676 plants, each employing more than 250 workers, revealed organized foremanship training in 4.9% of the small plants, and 19.2% of the larger ones.[24]

The lecture, text study, and group conference, frequently used in combination, were still the most commonly used training methods. There was wide variety in course content, but in keeping with the typical foreman of the period, the emphasis was on technical training, production methods, and other mechanical functions of the foreman. The training in human relations was in most cases neglected as being less important.

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[22] Ibid., p. 53.

[23] Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Typical Foremanship Programs and Topics, Department of Manufacture, 1928, p. 1

[24] National Industrial Conference Board, Industrial Relations Programs in Small Plants, 1929, pp. 16-18.

total costs can be so significant as that practitioners outside agriculture are attracted to ever escalating foreign consultants.[22]

Some indication of the prevalence of formalized training courses in this period is given in two surveys taken in the 1960's. The department of agriculture revealed knowledge of 105 formalized courses between June, 1961 and June, 1963. 32% courses in the following year, and 93% in 1964-1965 period.[23] Another survey conducted in 4,500 small plants, with employing 250 workers or less, and in 1,070 plants, with employing more than 250 workers, revealed training formalized training in 4.3% of the small plants, and 19.2% of the larger ones.[24]

The lecture, case study, and group conference, generally used in combination, were still the most commonly used training methods. There was wide variety in course content, but in keeping with the typical focuses of the period, the emphasis was on technical training, promotion methods, and other managerial functions of the foreman. The training in human relations was in most cases relegated to being less important.

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[22] Ibid., p. 53.

[23] Bureau of Industrial Relations, Department of Commerce, Training Programs and Policies, Department of Commerce, 1965, p. 1.

[24] National Industrial Conference Board, Industrial Training Programs in Small Plants, 1967, pp. 14-15.

During World War I, a new method of classroom training was introduced by C. R. Allen; it was known as the project method of training.[25] Sometimes referred to as the case method, it was used in conferences as a method of introducing typical problems of supervision. Advance preparation was made by committees on assigned problems to discover authoritative answers from literature or their experience. The findings were then discussed and an attempt was made to form conclusions on which all could agree.

The activity in training apparently decreased around 1930. One source attributes this decrease to management's conclusion that "the foremen were destined to become increasingly unimportant as management came to assume the responsibility for planning, routing, and making all important decisions as to policy."[26] Another cites the depression as the prime cause for the lack of continued training. Both were undoubtedly contributing factors; the point made is that foreman training was receding and was still at a low ebb as compared to the activity and interest exerted today.

During World War II supervisory training received its second and most important stimulus. Fern gives vivid illustration of this by stating, "Between July 1, 1940 and

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[25] Dale Yoder, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations, USAFI Vol. I, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1942, p. 237.

[26] Loc. cit.

Learning Media was a new method of classroom teaching was introduced by C. R. Atkins in the hope of the process method of teaching.[23] Sometimes referred to as the case method, it was used in conferences as a method of economic-social problems of administration. Literature pertaining was made by committees on analyzed problems to discover administrative answers from literature or their experience. The findings were then discussed and to achieve the made in some conclusions on which all could agree.

The activity in teaching successfully centered around life. One writer describes this decision in management's educational work "the formal was defined to centre in-creasingly entrepreneur as management came to assume the responsibility for planning, problems and action, it labors-and decisions as to policy,"[24] thereby altered the conversation as the prime cause for lack of continued teaching. Such were successfully administering through the point made in that Thomas Jenkins was teaching and was still at a loss and is concerned in the activity and learning matter today.

During World War II successfully teaching written for young and made increased climates. There gives clear illustration of this in article, "Between July 1, 1941 and

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[23] Dale Yoder, Personnel management and industrial relations, Third Ed. N. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1956, p. 17.

[24] Ibid. p. 18.

July 1, 1944 approximately 2,000,000 supervisors employed in war production industries had been trained or upgraded through organized programs."[27] The claimed merits in this statement might be debated, but it does present a true picture of the activity in supervisory training.

Since the war, many companies have conducted programs for the first time, and more experienced ones have intensified their efforts. In 1946 a survey among 3500 companies revealed that 33.5% of them were conducting supervisory training and development programs.[28] A later report in 1952 by the National Industrial Conference Board states that training and development of foremen and supervisors is presently at an all-time high.[29]

The endless variety of supervisory training activities emerges as one of the most significant findings of this latest survey. With the emphasis being gradually shifted to human relations training, the use of role-playing and case study methods have become more widespread, along with the continued use of the lecture, conference, and visual aids. It is the purpose of a later chapter to describe

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[27] George H. Fern, Training for Supervision in Industry, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1945, p. 1.

[28] National Industrial Conference Board, Personnel Activities in American Business (Revised); Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 86, New York, 1947, p. 17.

[29] Conference Board Report No. 124, op. cit., p. 3.

only 1,100 approximately 4,000,000 supervisors employed in non-production industries had been trained or upgraded through organized programs."[27] The claims merits in this statement might be debated, but it does generate a true picture of the activity in supervisory training.

Since the war, many companies have conducted programs for the first time, and many discontinued some more national-ized their efforts. In 1948 a survey among 3000 companies revealed that 52.5% of them were conducting supervisory training and development programs.[28] A later report in 1952 by the National Industrial Conference Board states that training and development of foremen and supervisors is practically at an all-time high.[29]

The modern reality of supervisory training activity has emerged as one of the more significant findings of this latest survey. Like the contacts using primarily skilled to lower relations training, the use of role-playing and case study methods have known more widespread, along with the continued use of the lecture, conference, and visual aids. It is the purpose of a later chapter to describe

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[27] George L. Moon, Training for Supervision in Industry, Hodgson-Hill, New York, 1953, p. 1.

[28] National Industrial Conference Board, Personnel Activities in Foreign Countries (Reviewed) Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 99, New York, 1953, p. 37.

[29] Conference Board Report No. 1,000 op. cit., p. 3.

these methods for possible use in improving supervision by Chief Petty Officers.

THE CHIEF PETTY OFFICER AND HIS LOCAL TRAINING

This part of the study is subject to the limitation noted previously concerning the lack of authentic documentation on the history of the Chief Petty Officer and his classroom training at the local level. Naval historians have been concerned mostly with the accomplishments of the whole Naval force, individual ships, or often famous officers; but their interest in accurately describing the enlisted man has been almost totally missing. The formal training in Navy schools has been publicized widely through Navy publications, but this differs from local training in that it is rigidly controlled by the Bureau of Personnel and is of short duration. The effect of this formal schooling on the enlisted man as it relates to his supervisory development is discussed in the following chapter. Also to be clarified in that connection is the influence of the Bureau of Personnel on local training and how it is exerted.

Further difficulty is encountered because local classroom supervisory training for Chief Petty Officers has not been differentiated from other local training which is reported on monthly or quarterly forms. Also, observations of that local training which is conducted throughout

space without for mobile use in improving supervision by chief army officers.

## The Chief Army Officer as the Local Trainer

This part of the study is devoted to the limitations which inevitably accompany the use of authoritative discussion in the training of the chief army officer and his classroom training of the local level. Great distinctions have been maintained mostly due the accomplishments of his whole level from. Individual skills, or other factors affecting the basic interest in successfully conducting the military as can be been almost easily obvious. The formal training in army schools has been facilitated widely through army publications, and also drawn from local training to some in a periodic conducted by the Bureau of Instructors and is of minor duration. The effect of this formal training on the officer was as it relates to his supervisory development is discussed in the following chapter. Also to be observed is what connection is the influence of the Bureau of Instructors on local training and how is it conducted.

Problem difficulty is encountered because local classroom supervisory training for chief army officers has not been differentiated from other local training which is required to modify or improve. Also, training alone of that local training which is conducted throughout

the Navy, have not been compiled and disseminated as they have frequently been in industry in the form of surveys of foreman training. Consequently, the author's personal experience, consultation with his colleagues, and some data available in training magazines, are combined to present a brief view of the history of the Chief Petty Officer and his local training. First, the evolution of the Chief Petty Officer will be described; this is followed by an example of his training based on the past experience of the author.

The development of the Chief Petty Officer has been similar to the three-stage development of the foreman; hence, the discussion will parallel rather closely that of his industrial counterpart. Most of the references to the two-fisted mate as the early American petty officer reveal that he was a man of physical competence and that he was selected primarily on that basis. The rugged life of the seas eliminated most of the physically weak, and the strongest of those who remained were made leaders because of their ability to "keep the rest in line." The early training of this petty officer, like that of the early foreman, was accomplished on the job.[30] In fact, much local training today is of this category. While not objecting to on-the-job training as a useful training approach, the reference

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[30] Bureau of Naval Personnel, The Story of Naval Manpower, NavPers 15802, p. 10.

the navy, have not been modified and introduced as they have frequently been in industry in the form of surveys of foreman training. Consequently, the author's personal experience, consultation with his colleagues, and some data available in training manuals, are combined to present a total view of the history of the chief petty officer and his total training. First, the evolution of the chief petty officer will be described; this is followed by an analysis of the training based on the past experience of the author.

The development of the chief petty officer has been similar to the supervisor-training development of the foreman; hence, the discussion will parallel other closely kin of the industrial counterpart. Most of the reformers in the two-fifths main as the early American petty officer proved that he was a man of physical competence and that he was selected relatively on that basis. The rugged life in the less civilized zone of the republic's west, and the physique of those who remained were more leaders because of their ability to "keep the rest in line." The early training of this petty officer, like that of the early foreman, was accomplished on the job.[20] In fact, much local training today is of this nature. While not objecting to on-the-job training as a useful training supervisor, the reformers

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[20] Dawson of Lord to General, The Diary of Lord Dunraven, Harper's 1900, p. 10.

is made to show that formal training was not deemed necessary in this period.

"This early selection procedure was superseded by one based primarily on technical competence, for reasons similar to those which were noted in industry. With the advent of metal ships, steam propulsion, intricate gunnery control systems, and finally sonar and radar, the emphasis was placed increasingly on technical competence more than the possession of physical attributes." The change was not immediately effected, however, since prior to World War II there were many examples of the military petty officer exercising the functions of his position in much the same manner as the foreman in industry did at the turn of the century. His word was law, and often times negative leadership, with the use of fear as the prime motivation, was resorted to.[31]

"The increases in size and complexity of the Navy have progressively removed some of the work functions from the Chief Petty Officer; this was especially noticeable after the two world wars." One article written by a former Chief Petty Officer, points to this as follows:

> Talking to some of the men who had sweated out the period of unrest following the first war, the old Chief came to the conclusion that the downward trend had begun in the early nineteen-twenties, when the

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[31] Skells, op. cit., p. 32.

in vain to show that formal training was not deemed necessary in this period.

The early admission procedure was supervised by one based primarily on traditional competence, for assuring stability to those which were novel to industry. Prior the service of metal skills, alone permitted, inherited learning control systems, and finally roman and Italian, the methods was closed increasingly on technical connections were then the possession of physical attributes.[11] The change was not immediately effected, however, since prior to World War II there were many examples of the military into civilian authorities the functions of its position in much the same manner as the German in industry did at the time of the monarchy. His word was law, and often since negative institutes, via the use of fear as the prime motivation, was imported to.[12]

The increase in size and complexity of the army have progressively removed some of the more functions from the chief fully officers this was especially noticeable after the world wars. One article written by a former chief fully officer, points to this as follows:

> Relying to some of the men who had served not the period of universal training the first war, the old chief came to the conclusion that the downward trend was begun in the early nineteen-twenties. When the

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[11] Smelin, op. cit., p. 20.

> finding of employment for the many excess junior officer had taken away some of the duties of the chiefs' ratings, mainly of leadership, thereby putting quite a crimp in the 'Backbone of the Navy!'[32]

The expansions in industry, accompanied by technological, organizational, and functional development, were cited previously as causes which changed the functions of the foremen. The Navy's expansion, with its accompanied changes, has likewise altered some of the Chief Petty Officer's functions. Whereas formerly there were only the deck and engineering divisions, now there are many divisions to cover the various technical specialties. For example, the old time chief of the engineering division was responsible for the entire propulsion and accessory equipment; today his responsibility is limited to one of the four phases of the engineering department -- boilers, main engines, auxiliaries, or electrical machines.

Skells mentions that the union and personnel movements in industry, which emphasized the rights and dignity of the individual as constituting a powerful force, caused a re-evaluation of leadership relationships and techniques in the military forces as well as everywhere else.[33] In addition, the expansion and widening of educational oppor-

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[32] J. M. Spring, "Petty Officers - Old and New," U.S. Naval Institute Proceedings, October, 1950, Vol. 76, no. 10, p. 1105.

[33] Skells, op. cit., p. 33.

> Finding of equipment for the very young junior officer has taken away some of the duties of the enlisted' nation, mainly of leadership, thereby putting quite a strain on the training of the Army.[32]

The expansion in industry, accompanied by technological, correlational, and traditional developments, were cited seriously as causes which changed the functions of the Army. The Army's association with the accompanied changes has literally altered some of the total Army officer's functions. Changes formerly taken care only the dean and engineering division, and there are many divisions in order the various technical specialties. For example, the old time chief of the engineering division and responsible for the entire organization and engineering personnel, today the responsibility is limited to one of the four areas of the engineering department -- military, civilian, civilian, or electrical engineers.

Public sociologists that the value and personnel corporate in industry, which emphasized the dignity and dignity of the individual as contributing a powerful force, caused a re-evaluation of leadership relationships and techniques in the military forces as well as corporate size.[33] In addition, the economics and mobility of occupational opportunities

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[32] R. E. Dupuy, "Young Officers - Do Not Use," Fort Sill Institute Proceedings, October, 1950, Vol. 7A, No. 10, p. 110.

[33] Davis, op. cit., p. 33.

tunities introduced a change in our social structure whereby the individual, military or civilian, asked for and expected fair treatment and recognition. The former Chief of Naval Personnel recognized military acceptance of this by the following message to all naval personnel:

> We say leadership must keep pace with 'social' advance, because leadership essentially deals with human relations....In our modern democracy, leadership leads rather than drives; one of its functions is to teach and train. While our leaders command, they also show the way.[34]

In conclusion, the worth and dignity of the individual is a creative force throughout the world; in permeating the Navy, it has made new and different demands on the Navy supervisor, if he is to function efficiently in the work situation.

A prevalent opinion today applauds the technical competence of the Chief Petty Officer as being of high order, but it criticizes his leadership ability as being far below required standards. This opinion is supported by comments made by flag officers to the Bureau of Personnel in 1948. In criticizing a common practice, one comment states specifically that, "enlisted men are recommended for promotion with little or no thought being given to their leadership abilities."[35] The result has been obvious; today's Chief Petty

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[34] T. L. Sprague, "A Message From the Chief of Naval Personnel," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, Bureau of Naval Personnel, May, 1949, Introd.

[35] "Leadership Program", U.S. Naval Training Bulletin October, 1948, p. 20.

institution introduced a change in our social structure where-by the individual, military or civilian, acted for and exercised full authority and responsibility. The Prayer Chief of Naval Personnel recognized military acceptance of this by the following message to all naval personnel:

> "My Leadership must keep pace with technical advance, because leadership essentially deals with human relations...In our modern democracy, leadership lends rather than enforces one of the functions in to being and begins with our leaders command. They also show the way."[24]

In conclusion, the worth and dignity of the individual is a critical force throughout the world in determining the fate. It has made new and different demands on the Navy supervisor. If he is to succeed sufficiently in the work situation.

A supervisor relation today acknowledge the traditional authority of the chief petty officer as leader of high morale, but it criticizes the leadership ability as being too being required elements. This criticism is supported by comments made by flag officers to the Bureau of Personnel in 1951. In maintaining a common practice, the commander states specifically that, "military men are permitted for promotion with little or no thought being given to their leadership abilities."[25] The result has been serious being chief petty

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[24] L. L. Tarquer, "A Message from the Chief of Naval Personnel," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, Bureau of Naval Personnel, May, 1953, Nation.

[25] "Leadership Program", U.S. Naval Training Bulletin Sabsmen, 1951, p. 20.

Officer is too often a technician and not a leader. Many of the present day Chiefs received their rates during the past war when promotions were rapid for those having good conduct plus technical ability." Consequently, the "typical" Navy supervisor still resembles his industrial counterpart; both are primarily technicians. In completing the parallel analysis, although lacking statistics, it is stated confidently that few of the present Chief Petty Officers have attended college. Many have high school diplomas, and not a few have failed to go beyond the first or second year of high school. In conclusion, an assumption is made that the educational backgrounds of the two supervisors are similar.

Little mention has been made thus far of the local training which the Chief Petty Officer undergoes. What classroom training does he receive which is comparable to foreman instruction and which develops his supervisory ability? Using past observations within local units as a basis, the general conclusion is reached that very little instruction, with the exception of the technical aspects of jobs, is given to the job management and man management areas of supervision. The fact that some skill in these seemingly neglected areas is acquired by observation and on the job instruction is not overlooked. However, the opinion is offered that classroom methods conducted on a more permanent basis than now exists would aid considerably

in the task of upgrading and maintaining the effectiveness of the supervisory forces. If industry has discovered enough valuable material, excluding that concerned with the acquisition of mechanical skills, to warrant continuous programs for purposes of improving the proficiency of their foremen, could not the same assumption be applied to the Navy supervisor? The many benefits derived from industrial methods are mentioned in a later chapter; the proposal indicated here is that, if these procedures are fruitful for industrial usage, their adoption by Navy commands might also prove advantageous.

The majority of the efforts made to coordinate work within a unit consist of the familiarly known meeting. Such Chief Petty Officer conferences or gatherings are convened, more often than not, for purposes of communication of work to be done, proposed operations which require the cooperation and coordination of all sections, or for the solution of pressing problems which have arisen. Such meetings, whether convened at regular or irregular intervals, can not realistically be labelled as training sessions.

To be more specific, an explanation will be given of a Chief Petty Officer conference which was scheduled at weekly intervals for periods of one hour in an aircraft squadron. This, in the experience of the author, is the closest approximation to what would be designated as class-

in the task of assembling and unbolsting the attractiveness of the discretionary forces. If industry has discovered much valuable material, including that concerned with the acquisition of mechanical skills, to provide stimulus programs for purposes of improving the productivity of their towers, could not the same association in auditing be the key supervisor? The many benefits derived from industrial methods are mentioned in a later chapter; the proposal indicated here is that, if these procedures are practical for industrial usage, their adoption by tower commander might also prove advantageous.

The majority of the efforts made to encourage work within a unit consist of the familiarity among meeting. Much that busy officer conferences or gatherings are unused, more often than not, for purposes of communication of ways to be done, proposed operations which require the cooperation and coordination of all members, or for the solution of pressing problems which have arisen. Good management, whether conceived as regular or irregular interaction, can not realistically be included as training exercises.

To be more specific, an application will be given of a Chief Petty Officer conference which was scheduled as weekly interaction for petty of the tower to be already planned. This, in the experience of the author, is the closest approximation to what might be considered as class-

room supervisory training. The engineering officer was the conference leader, and the group which attended consisted of approximately forty Chief Petty Officers who were aircraft mechanics, structural repairmen, or electrical and electronic technicians. The combined functions of these supervisors, with the exception of gunnery personnel responsibilities, were to supervise the work of their subordinates so that the squadron aircraft were in safe, flyable condition to meet operational commitments.

Again excluding technical instruction, the following are some of the job management and man management functions which were discussed. Since squadron operations varied greatly from week to week, one of the prime topics was the planning of work in advance so that flight schedules could be effected. The electrician, mechanic, and repairman, could offer estimates on the completion of their particular phases of responsibility in preparing the aircraft for flight. Systems which were used successfully in past experiences of the conferees were discussed pro and con in an effort to improve the coordination needed within the department.

Much time was allocated to instruction in methods for inspection and maintenance of equipment which were peculiar to that type of aircraft assigned to the squadron. A mechanic in charge of an aircraft which had experienced a

over unsatisfactory variation. The engineering activity was the responsibility, and the group with its attached contractors of approximately fifty total civil officers and enlisted staff mechanics, structural engineers, or electrical and electronic technicians. The contract functions of large corporations, with the exception of primary structural responsibilities, were so superficial the work of small subcontractors so that the sub-zero aircraft were in safe, flyable condition to meet operational conditions.

Again excluding technical interaction, the following are some of the job assignment and man management functions which were discussed. Since expansion operations varied greatly from year to year, one of the prime tasks was the planning or work to schedule so that flight schedules could be met. The electricians, machinists, and repairmen, could only participate in the maintenance of their particular areas of responsibility in producing the aircraft for flight. Problem areas were used successfully in part supervisors of the conference body discussed and each one is an effort to improve the communication needed within the department.

Much time was allocated to investigation in addition for inspection and maintenance of equipment which were similar to most type of aircraft assigned to the squadron. A particular to design of an aircraft which has experienced a

mechanical failure would describe the symptoms of the trouble and corrective measures taken to his colleagues. This exchange of experiences aided others in simplification of their problems and promoted better safety and efficiency.

Another portion of the conference was concerned with instruction on preparing reports and records. Those forms which required action by the chiefs were introduced and explained by the engineering officer, usually by lecture method. The importance of these as a means of keeping the engineering office informed at all times on the status of aircraft readiness and personnel was stressed frequently.

The greatest value derived from these conferences resulted from the communication effected. The Chief Petty Officers were informed constantly of proposed changes which were to affect them and their subordinates, and they were often given opportunity to offer suggestions with regard to the execution of many policies. Their advice was requested on matters such as assignment of personnel within the department, recommendations for advancement of their subordinates to higher ratings, handling personal problems of general interest, and many more.

The conference method, as operated in the above example, could not be classed as adequate leadership instruction. Some help was given to the Chief Petty Officer in coordinating his men and their work, but other import-

educational failure would describe the situation of the
juvenile and corrective measures taken on his behalf.
This training of supervisors might assure in adequate
of their problems and promotion better caring and efficiency.

Another portion of the conference was concerned with
improvement in preventing crimes and records. Cases from
which required action by the police were discussed and
explained by the educational officers, usually by lectures
method. The importance of films as a means of keeping the
educational officer informed at all times in the course of
students previous and personal and changing frequently.

The greatest value resulted from these conferences
realized from the communicative efforts. The chief being
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which were to affect them and their supervisors, and they
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subordinates to higher ranking, handling personal problems
of general interest, and many more.

The conference method, as practiced in the above ex-
ample, could not be planned on regular basis because
attendance. Some help was given by the chief truly officers
in coordinating his own and their work, but other honors-

ant phases of supervision were neglected. None of the psychology of leadership nor an understanding of methods for promoting better human relations were discussed. The assumption was made that the Chief Petty Officer had served in the Navy for enough time so that he knew how to handle his men; and this belief could very well have been false. No instruction was given for methods for training his subordinates; again, the supposition was made that because the supervisor was technically qualified, he would be able to transfer such knowledge to others. Other man management functions such as maintaining discipline, handling complaints and grievances, and developing morale could have been stressed as important considerations. Rather than dealing with problems which have already occurred or are considered pressing at the moment, training designed to meet leadership situations before they happen might be more advantageous.

Other units may possibly have better programs than the one described; but none were encountered within the experience of the author. Although this conference accomplished much for this particular squadron, there appears opportunity for improvement based on a combination of training methods similar to ones used in industry. These are described in a later chapter and are offered for consideration by local units such as the aircraft squadron mentioned above.

and issues of superstition were involved. None of the
psychology of isolation nor an understanding of methods
for promoting better human relations were discussed. The
assumption was made that the total truth contained had served
in the city for enough time so that it was not to insult
his body and that belief would very well have been false.
An instruction was given for methods for training his sub-
ordinates again. The supposition was made that because the
supervisor was bodilessly realized, he would be able to
transfer such knowledge to others. Other had indicated
Tuesdays such as relationship discipline, handling complaints
and grievances, and developing merely which new into Tuesday-
ed as important considerations. Rather than dealing with
problems which he saw already occurred or are occurring
presently at the course, initiated lectures to meet hypoth-
ell situations which they happen might be more advantage-
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pears opportunity for improvement based on a consideration of
training methods similar to those used in industry. These
are described in a list chapter and are offered for
illustration by local units such as the already mentioned
sections above.

## CHAPTER III

### THE BUREAU OF NAVAL PERSONNEL AND ITS RESPONSIBILITIES FOR TRAINING

Since the prime objective of this study is to offer a proposal for supervisory training within local commands, the preceding chapter was confined to Chief Petty Officer training at that level in order to understand the development and current status of any such training. The selection of the local level, as mentioned previously, was based mainly on the fact that this location provided better opportunity for continuous training. However, to ignore completely other training which is available in the Navy would be presenting an incomplete picture of the enlisted man's past experiences in this respect. Since training in the Navy schools has pronounced effect on the overall development of most enlisted men, the present chapter was deemed essential to a better understanding of military training and the mechanics of its operation. Some of the more important questions to be answered are: What types of schools does the Navy conduct for enlisted men? Who is responsible for the administration and supervision of these schools? How does the enlisted man qualify for entrance to them? What, in general, are the courses of instruction offered in these schools, and how much do their contents relate to supervisory development? What relation do these formal schools

## CHAPTER III

### THE ROLES OF NAVAL OFFICERS AND ITS RESPONSIBILITIES FOR TRAINING

Since the prime objective of this study is to offer a proposal for organizational changes within local commands, the procedure chapter has centered on total Navy training problems at that level in order to understand the decision-maker and current efforts of any kind whatsoever. The selection of the ideal level, as mentioned previously, was based solely on the fact that this investigation certainly opportunity for constructive variation. However, to ignore completely other training units is available in the Navy would be synonymous to incomplete glimpse of the military Navy's past experience in this regard. Since tradition is the key ingredient the permanence effect on the overall development of most military men, the present chapter has focused exclusively to a better understanding of military training and the mechanics of the operation. Some of the more important questions to be answered are: What type of educate were the key concept for military man? Who is responsible for the administration and supervision of these activities? Who does the military man qualify for training to that? In general, are the courses of instruction offered in these schools, and how used to build potential relize to accomplishment civilian? What relating to Navy formal schools

and other training courses have to local training? And finally, not the least problem to be considered, is how the proposal of this study or recommendations from field activities for improving training are incorporated for use in the Navy?

FORMAL NAVY TRAINING

The Bureau of Personnel is responsible for recruit, basic, and technical training and education of all personnel of the Navy, both officers and enlisted men, as individuals, except that training which is assigned to other bureaus, offices, or commands.[1] The two notable exceptions include the control of naval aviation training which is exercised by the Deputy Chief of Naval Operations (Air) through the Chief of Naval Air Training and air type commanders, and secondly, the professional and technical education and training of all medical personnel which is administered by the Chief of the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery. A final exception includes fleet schools which, although under management control of the Bureau of Personnel, are under operational control of the Deputy Chief of Naval Operations (Operations). Included as Appendix III is an organizational chart which shows the training responsibilities in

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[1] "Responsibilities For Naval Training and Education," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, August 1951, pp. 1-2.

and other training endeavors have to local variations. And finally, and the least problem to be encountered, is how the proponent of this study is recommendations from field evaluations for improving training and management can be in the navy.

## Formal Navy Training

The course of instruction in psychological for recruit, basic and technical material for education of all personnel of the Navy, both officers and enlisted men, as the situation; always have training which is intended to develop "citizens, or soldiers."[1] The new training developments include the concept of naval aviation training which is analogous to the Navy Chief of Naval Operations (CNO) through the chief of Naval Air Training and its type commanders, and finally, the professional and technical training and training of all medical personnel which is undertaken by the Chief of the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery. A final exception includes field exercise which, although under management control of the Bureau of Personnel, are under operational control of the Navy Chief of Naval Operations (CNO). Besides is important it is an organizational chart which shows the training responsibilities in

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[1] "Reserve Affairs Are Naval Training and Education," Navy Chief Training Bulletin, August 1974, pp. 1ff.

the naval establishment.[2] The entire scope of responsibility for school training is presented in simplified form, and the only other enlisted training, which is supplementary to this, includes individual and group instruction at the local levels. For purposes of this discussion the Bureau of Personnel schools and the fleet schools ashore will be described. The exceptions which apply to aviation and medical personnel are excluded since they are under control of their separate bureaus. Their administration is similar to that of the Bureau of Personnel, and the schools and facilities available to personnel in these categories are comparable to those provided for the general service rates.

Prior to a description of the schools available and their curricula it is desirable to mention the various divisions, branches, and sections within the Bureau of Personnel which are concerned directly with specially designated phases of the vast responsibility of the bureau. The administration and support of the Bureau of Personnel Training Program is the direct responsibility of the Training Division, which itself is subdivided into two branches.[3] These are designated as the Field Administration Branch

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[2] Ibid., p. 2.

[3] "BuPers Training," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin September, 1950, pp. 9-10.

the moral environment.[2] The moral aspect of responsibility for school training is expressed in school-life, work, and the only other related training, which is supplementary to this, involves individual and group instruction at the local levels. For purposes of this discussion the bureau of vocational schools and the first summer school will be described. The associations which apply to education and medical personnel are excluded since they are under control of their respective bureaus. Their administration is similar to that of the bureau of vocational, and the schools and facilities available to personnel in these categories are comparable to those provided for the general working rules.

Prior to a description of the schools available and their curricula it is desirable to mention the various divisions, branches, and sections within the bureau of vocational which are concerned directly with specialized development of the vocational responsibility of the bureau. The administration and support of the Bureau of Vocational Training consists in the direct responsibility of the Training Division, which itself is subdivided into two branches.[3] These are designated as the Field Instruction Branch

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[2] Ibid., p. 5.

[3] "Bureau Training," C.C., Bureau Training Division Handbook, 1950, pp. 1-10.

and the Standards and Curriculum Branch. The former is responsible for the planning, organizing, administering, and supervising of the Bureau of Personnel schools and is concerned with "the what, the why, the where, and the when of their establishment and operation."[4] The latter, the Standards and Curriculum Branch, "develops and implements plans with regard to training techniques and procedures; produces and distributes training materials such as curricula, bulletins, manuals, enlisted training courses, correspondence courses, educational services, training aids, and training films."[5] These functions indicate that the Standards Branch is concerned mostly with the question of how such training under its cognizance is conducted. The broad responsibilities of the two branches are further delegated to sections, which number five in each one.

The Enlisted Training Section has cognizance over the four categories of Bureau of Personnel schools, which are designated as "P", "A", "B", and "C" schools.[6] Some statistics on the number and the student load reveal the intensity exerted in this formal schooling during World War II and at the present time. Schools operated and supported by the Bureau of Personnel expanded from a prewar

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[4] Ibid., p. 10

[5] Loc. cit.

[6] Ibid., pp. 12-13.

and the Commons and Constitution Clauses. The former is applicable for the planning, coordination, administration and maintenance of the Commons of Canadian society and is characterized thus: "the state, the city, the church, and the sphere of their relationships and responsibilities."[1] The latter, the Commons and Constitution Clauses, "develope and interpret plans with regard to existing institutions and institutional problems and constitutional material such as property-rds, relations, contracts, existing existing systems, institutions, commerce, commercial practices, business, and building civics, and building civics."[2] These functions indicate that the Commons-Sociology is concerned with the operation of the main institutions in conjunction to constitute, the human responsibilities of the one Commons and Constitution to existence, which another plan is man-made.

The Outlines Sociology Institute and Commons Clause are concerned in terms of Geddes' Commons, which are concerned in "civ, dat", "civ" and "for society."[3] These activities of the society and the Commons Sociology-Commons Institute essence is also concerned concerning the only man for it and as the society sign. Geddes concerns and concerns in the Commons of Commons concerned from a power

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[1] Geddes, p. 37
[2] Ibid. 37.
[3] Ibid., pp. 41-42.

total of 100 to approximately 500 during the war, and there are about 200 presently in operation. At the height of wartime activity there were more than 400,000 trainees receiving instruction at one time.[7] Although these figures include both officer and enlisted schools, a conservative estimate would be that two-thirds of them are established for enlisted men.

The P schools conduct training at the preparatory and basic training level, and the three sources providing candidates are the recruit training centers, quota assignments to commands afloat, and individual requests. A schools provide ground work for general service ratings by technically qualifying the enlisted men for third and second class petty officer ratings. The B schools provide more advanced training, and their curricula qualify the higher rated enlisted men for petty officer first class and the chief ratings. The final category, designated as C type, is established to develop a special skill and includes such specialties as musicians, deep sea divers, personnelmen, motion picture operators, etc. The curricula differ from that of the P, A, and B schools, in that they are not designed to cover the full requirements for a rating.

What are the contents of the above mentioned schools? How do they aid the petty officer to be a supervisor? A

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[7] "The BuPers Training Program," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, June, 1950, p. 1.

[illegible] of life in approximately the period 100 [illegible], and there was almost zero [illegible] in operation. At the [illegible] of [illegible] activity there were more than [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

recent visit to Navy schools located at the Memphis and Great Lakes training activities, and including both aviation and general service types, revealed that the major emphasis was allotted to the acquisition of technical skill. The excellence of the instructional methods was noted, and there exists no doubt that the enlisted man attending these schools increases his technical competence. This technical skill would be categorized as job skill under the definition of supervision; its importance is realized as a desireable requirement for those who are to supervise others. However, very few of the job management functions of supervision were emphasized, and this is an important prerequisite of the supervisor. In fact, the job management and man management areas are considered more vital for those whose prime job is the coordination of the work of many subordinates.

Within the formal schooling organization there exist two courses which do train the enlisted man in leadership and instructor functions, and they are comparable to foremanship courses. Instructor training has been an important addition to fleet and service schools. They were established primarily to cultivate teaching ability among those who are to be instructors in the formal schools, and consequently this training is received only by those Chief Petty Officers who have been assigned duty on a teaching

staff during their careers. This obviously does not include the majority of the Chief Petty Officers in the Navy, therefore much benefit would be derived from an extension of this indoctrination to the maximum number of them, since they could more effectively give instruction to their subordinates in their divisional work within local units.

The second course, which aids in supervisory indoctrination, provides instruction in leadership. In 1949 this was included as a part of the curriculum of all naval enlisted class A and B schools and is an improved complement to the technical training which is administered.[8] The course outline was based on a leadership publication which was distributed widely to all fleet units. At the time of its distribution, the recommendation was made by the Bureau of Personnel that similar courses should be administered by the local units as a means of providing wider leadership training in the Navy.

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS FOR NAVY SCHOOLS

Opportunity for attendance at Navy schools is not available to every enlisted man; however, the man with normal intelligence and a desire for the training may qualify.

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[8] "General Outline In Leadership Used in Class A and B Schools," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, February, 1949, pp. 11-17.

staff during that month. The [illegible] and [illegible] the majority of the total [illegible] in the [illegible]. [illegible] that such [illegible] would be [illegible] in [illegible] of this [illegible] in the [illegible] number of [illegible], [illegible] that [illegible] more effectively [illegible] in their [illegible] coordinate in their [illegible] and [illegible] local [illegible].

The [illegible] course, [illegible] also in [illegible] [illegible], [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]. [illegible] was [illegible] as a part of the [illegible] of all [illegible] [illegible] class [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

Article D-2304 of the Bureau of Personnel Manual states the requirements:

> Aptitude for the school, course, and type of Navy duty for which such courses prepare him based on physical characteristics, scores on Navy tests, civilian occupation, previous training, experience, hobbies, and interests.

BUREAU OF PERSONNEL'S RELATIONSHIP TO LOCAL TRAINING

The organizational chart (Appendix III) and the above discussion reveal that the Bureau of Personnel is not directly responsible for how local training is conducted or what training is accomplished. Its direct responsibility is limited, in regard to enlisted training, to the formal schools designated as fleet and service schools. In many ways the Bureau does influence local training indirectly. First, the students who do attend the formal schools are transferred to the fleet units, and their capabilities are utilized by the local commands. Any new techniques and knowledge which are learned are shared with others. Secondly, the Training Publications Section disseminates Navy training courses, correspondence courses, the U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, and other publications to fleet units. These serve as helpful guides to the local units in establishing their training programs; and further, they provide current information on facilities which can be used by commands to upgrade the efficiency of their personnel. Finally, the Training

Article I-1370 of the Survey of Personnel School states the requirements:

> Initiate for the school, country, and type of duty for which each course prepares the board on doctrinal considerations, course of duty terms, civilian occupations, practice training, materials, policies, and inventory.

## Issues of Personnel Availability in Local Training

The organizational chart (Appendix III) and the above discussion reveal that the issues of personnel is not directly responsible for the local training is assigned or when training is accomplished. The direct responsibility is limited, in regard to related training, to the Personnel School designated in first and second echelons. In many ways the Korean case indicates local training is inadequately first, the students who to attend the Personnel School are designated in the first echelon, and their availability are utilized by the local commanders. Any new techniques and knowledge which are learned are passed also. Secondly, the training facilities--having different characteristics very training courses, correspondence courses, the Air Force Training Command, and other publications in first echelon. There were no helpful guides to the local units in establishing their training requirements and further, they provide several information on facilities which can be used by commanders to supplement the efficiency of their personnel. Finally, the training

Aids and Distribution sections render valuable service to local training by providing available educational and training materials. Films, training publications, texts, special devices, and many more materials are thus available to local units upon request.

The Shipboard Training Manual should be mentioned as an excellent example of Bureau of Personnel literature which was designed to aid local training.[9] The introduction states specifically that the purpose of the manual is to suggest methods for administration of a training program for individuals. It recognizes that training needs vary among units and therefore is confined to general recommendations concerning administration of a program, techniques of instruction, and training hints. The problem of applying these general proposals into specific situations is a responsibility of the local command. To do this most effectively, it is recommended that a training board be established to diagnose the training needs within a unit and to effect a suitable program to meet these needs. Thus, the initiative of the board and the availability of time appear as the only limitations to the scope and intensity of local training. Part I of the manual provides helpful directions for the administration of a training program and stresses

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[9] Bureau of Naval Personnel, Shipboard Training Manual, op. cit.

film and distribution matters report provide advice to local branches on promoting available productions and facilitating materials. Films, training publications, posters, technical devices, and many more materials are then available to local units upon request.

The diplomacy training manual would be unclear as to resulting benefits if lessons of previous liberation units are applied to all local situations.[9] The recommendation states specifically that the purpose of the manual is to provide models for orientations of a training program for instructors. A respondent that initially said very about media and therefore is confident in general recommendations concerning administration of a program, budgeting of instructors, and creating units. The problem of applying these general procedures into specific situations is a responsibility of the local commander. So do this more effectively, it is recommended that a training manual be established for illustrating the training needs within a unit and to effect a multiple approach to meet these needs. Thus, the initiative of the commander and the availability of film support are the only limitations to the scope and intensity of local training. Item 1 of the manual provides helpful alternatives for the evaluation of a training program and alternate

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[9] Commander of Naval Personnel, Diplomacy Training Manual, op. cit.

the importance of planning, organizing, executing, controlling, and coordinating any training. A chapter for each of the above phases of administration is concerned with instructions and examples for their accomplishment. Part two offers suggestions relating to techniques of instruction and examines the four factors involved in any training situation, namely, the instructor, the trainee, the subject matter, and the method of instruction. Part three offers general training hints which will aid the instructor in many training situations. The Shipboard Training Manual has served as a useful reference for the solution of local training problems, and most units have used parts of its content when applicable to their needs. It is again emphasized that the information is offered as a suggestion and in no way is the connotation of a directive or order implied.

TRAINING RECOMMENDATIONS FROM FLEET UNITS

It has been explained that individual units receive recommendations for improving their training procedures from the Bureau of Personnel training manuals and publications. These units can, in turn, offer any innovations which they have found successful to the bureau, and if of interest to other Navy units, the information is disseminated via current issues of training bulletins. In this manner, commands are informed of the procedures which others

the importance of planning, organizing, executing, coordinating, and controlling any undertaking. A chapter for each of the three phases of evaluation is proposed with informations and examples for their accomplishment. This can offers suggestions relating to techniques of investigation and analyzes the four factors involved in any training situation, namely, the instructors, the trainees, the subject matter, and the method of instruction. Part three covers general training aids which will aid the instructor in less formal situations. The Corporate Training Manual has served as a useful reference for the solution of local training problems, and may indeed have had some of the content that facilitate in their means. It is again emphasized that the information is offered as a suggestion and in no way is the recommendation of a directive or would implies.

Training Accomplishment Does Count Much

It has been evident that individual units receive responsibilities for innovative short training programs from the ranks of professional training managers and supervisors. There will be, it seems, after any innovations which they may found essential to the needs, and if of interest to other top leaders, the information is disseminated and the company issues of training bulletins. In this manner, examples are lectures of the programs which other

are using to solve their training problems. For any proposal such as the one resulting from this study to reach the local units, it would be submitted to the Bureau of Personnel, be approved, and disseminated in training bulletins or other periodicals.

CHAPTER IV

# THE NATURE OF SUPERVISION

## SUPERVISOR - BORN OR MADE?

Can training improve supervision? Is supervision art or science? These and other practical questions which arise in any consideration of a training program suggest a brief summary of the views of research workers and men responsible for such programs. Fisher offers examples of this diversity of opinion by quoting the expressed views of Spengler on the one hand and that of Krech and Crutchfield on the other.[1] Spengler states:

> As in every process there is a technique of direction and a technique of execution, so equally self-evidently, there are men whose nature is to command men whose nature is to obey....Governing, deciding, guiding, commanding is an art, a difficult technique, and like any other it presupposes an innate talent.[2]

Krech and Crutchfield, on the other hand, state:

> Every individual may, given the proper group and the proper situation, come to serve as a leader....It is being more widely appreciated, at least by those who deal directly with the problem of leadership in government, in business, in education, and in all sorts of organizational activity, that the success of a person in a leadership capacity depends less

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[1] Fisher, op. cit., p. 9.

[2] Oswald Spengler, Man and Techniques, New York, 1932, pp. 62-64.

> upon inherent features of his personality than upon the skills and attitudes that he possesses and the kind of group atmosphere in which he functions.[3]

A part of this diversity of opinion may be bridged by definition of supervision; as applied, it includes both mechanical and human aspects. Mosher and others indicate that there are specific techniques and skills in the more mechanical aspects of supervision which can be taught.[4] They indicate some of these as work process improvement, flow charting, job analysis, layout, and work planning. Since Navy training at the local level, for the most part does not emphasize these functions, it appears that the Navy would benefit at least in this respect, from training.

However, the present trend supported by many authorities indicates that human relations should be given the greatest emphasis in supervisory training, because they constitute the major method of getting work done. Davis has referred to this by stating that the foreman's job is essentially one of executive leadership, requiring the proper performance of planning, organizing, and controlling group activities.[5] It is in this major area of training for super-

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[3] David Krech and Richard S. Crutchfield, Theories and Problems of Social Psychology, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1948, pp. 436-430-431.

[4] William E. Mosher and others, Public Personnel Administration, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York, 1950, p. 419.

[5] Ralph C. Davis, Industrial Organization and Management, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1940, p. 562.

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vision, the leadership area, that the greatest divergence of opinion exists. This study is not a comprehensive coverage of leadership or of supervisory leadership, but a review of some of the more recent findings and opinions is of importance in a discussion of supervisory training.

LEADERSHIP

Studies concerned with leadership and leadership development are comparatively new. Since the most vivid examples of the functioning of leadership are found in crises such as wars, the majority of the early studies of leadership were based on the study of great military leaders, such as Napoleon or Nelson. Later it was realized that leadership was a potent force in more peaceful and less glamorized activities of every day life. The growth and expansion of industrial organizations and military forces, precipitated by two world wars, revealed the great shortage of leaders in both of these fields; hence, research studies into leadership were implemented during World War I and intensified during and after World War II.

A summary of the literature up to 1933 grouped the explanations of leadership under three headings: (1) leadership as myth and fiction; (2) leadership as a composite of traits in the individual; and (3) leadership as the result of interstimulation between the group and

dation, the [illegible] that the [illegible] elements of [illegible] [illegible]. This study is not a [illegible] [illegible] of [illegible] or [illegible] [illegible], but a [illegible] [illegible] of the [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] is of [illegible] [illegible] is a [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible].

[illegible]

[illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [

the leader.[6] This same summary divides the theories of leadership into two categories, heredity and environment. It concludes with the statement that the more recent studies of this period do not support the common belief that leaders are born and not made:

> Inherited traits must be supplemented by environmental factors which provide for their proper development. As one reads the biographies of outstanding leaders in any field he is impressed with the fact that these individuals had training for the activities in which they excel. This training may have been direct and intentional and again it may have been a more or less incidental part of their experiences. In every field the demand is becoming more insistent for leaders whose training has been definitely planned and coordinated.[7]

More recent leadership research has largely discarded the first two categories under the 1935 explanations of leadership, and is generally less optimistic about the feasibility of training for it.

Leadership as a myth and fiction has probably been abandoned, partly because research workers do not wish to assume a defeatist attitude since leaders are in such demand, but mostly because evidence of leadership is indicated by most humans in some form or degree.

The leadership characteristics hypothesis has been thoroughly explored by students of the subject through many

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[6] Henry L. Smith and Levi M. Krueger, A Brief Summary of Literature on Leadership, Bureau of Cooperative Research, Indiana University, 1935, p. 9.

[7] Ibid., p. 68.

the leader.[6] This same summary divides the studies of leadership into two categories; [illegible] with their approach. It concludes with the statement that the more recent results of this sort do not support the common belief that leaders are born and not made.

> Leadership traits must be supplemented by environmental factors which provide for [illegible] proper development. As one reads the biographies of outstanding leaders in any field he is impressed with the fact that these individuals had training for the activities in which they excel. This training may have been direct and intentional and again it may have been a more or less incidental part of their experience. In every field the demand is growing more insistent for leaders whose training has been definitely planned and controlled.[7]

This second hypothesis— [illegible] the [illegible] of the first two categories under the [illegible] explanations of leadership, and is probably less definitive [illegible] the feasibility of training for it.

Leadership as a myth and fiction has generally been abandoned, partly because present society is not able to assume a [illegible] attitude that leaders are in some manner [illegible], but mostly because evidence of leadership is indicated by most studies in some form or degree.

The leadership characteristics hypothesis has been thoroughly explored by students of the subject through many

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[6] Henry L. Smith and Leo M. Krueger, *A Brief Summary of Literature on Leadership*, Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, 1933, p. 7.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 69.

approaches to the problem. The "Leadership in a Democracy" study at Ohio State University, identified eight of these as follows:

1. Observation of behavior in group situations.
2. Choice of associates.
3. Nomination of qualified observers.
4. Selection of persons occupying positions of leadership.
5. Analysis of biographical and case history data.
6. The listing of traits considered to be essential.
7. Supplementary aspects, including testing, questionnaires, and rating scales.
8. Age groups.[8]

The abundance and variety of the characteristics listed from hundreds of separate studies, are confusing. Even the most commonly listed characteristics do not represent a concensus of opinion, because very few of them were listed by more than ten per cent of the sources cited, which included over one hundred military and civilian references.[9]

Hemphill states that the continued prevalence of the trait-listing approach has resulted in a mass of data on the

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[8] Ralph M. Stogdill,"Personal Factors Associated With Leadership:A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, XXV, January, 1948, pp. 2-4.

[9] Ibid., p. 7.

appropriate to the problem. The "conceptual" is a [illegible] study of this year's curriculum, [illegible] which are as follows:

1. [illegible] of [illegible] in group activities;
2. [illegible] of [illegible];
3. [illegible] of qualitative [illegible];
4. [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible];
5. [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] [illegible];
6. [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible];
7. [illegible], [illegible], [illegible], [illegible], and [illegible] [illegible];
8. [illegible].[1]

The [illegible] [illegible] of the [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

personal qualities of leaders in many "highly specific but unsystematically related situations."[10] A review of the literature by Stogdill on the personal factors in leadership and including only those which were listed in at least fifteen of the 124 sources, grouped them under five general headings: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, and status. Stogdill's major conclusion, which was similarly supported by Jenkins in a review of studies of leadership in military and industrial settings,[11] was that "qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader."[12] This conclusion has been accepted by most authorities; hence, the trait approach, in and of itself, has been largely abandoned.

More recent approaches to leadership have stressed the importance of the situation. This trend supports Davis' view of every leadership problem as one having three interacting primary factors -- the leader, the people led, and the particular situation.[13] The situational ap-

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[10] John K. Hemphill, Situational Factors in Leadership, Bureau of Educational Research Monograph No. 32, Ohio State University, 1949, p. 6.

[11] W. O. Jenkins, "A Review of Leadership Studies With Particular Reference to Military Problems," Psychological Bulletin, 44, January, 1947, pp. 54-79.

[12] Stogdill, op. cit., p. 63.

[13] Davis, op. cit., p. 31.

personal qualities of leaders in such "highly specific and unpredictably demanding situations."[10] A review of the literature by Stogdill on the personal factors in leadership and relating only some 70 to 80 very basic ideas of the 150 concepts, includes such major dimensions as capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, and status. Stogdill's major conclusions, which was similarly supported in Jenkins's review of studies of leadership in military and industrial settings,[11] was that "qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined in a large sense by the demands of the situations in which he is to be functioning as a leader."[12] Data indicated the need exists to make adaptations; hence, the Army situation, if not of itself, has been largely stimulated.

The Israeli experience in kibbutzim has also stressed the importance of the situation. This Israel supports Lewin's view of every immediately evident in our daily lives involving primary factors — the leader, the people led, and the particular situation.[13] The situational con-

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[10] John A. Jenkins, Stogdill's Theory in Leadership, Army, Navy, Air Force Personnel Research Laboratory, Lackland Air Force Base, Texas, 1956, p. 6.

[11] J. A. Jenkins, "A Review of Leadership Theory with Particular Reference to Military Problems," Personnel Psychology, Vol. Winter, 1951, pp. 54-79.

[12] Jenkins, op. cit., p. 6.

[13] Lewin, op. cit., p. 76.

proach to leadership seems to provide a more sound basis for devising practical programs for the selection and training of those who are to direct group activities. The general theory of this method is that knowledge of the relation of leadership to dimensions of the group will give a better definition of leadership by revealing new functions required of individuals in a leadership role. The main difficulty in this approach lies in specifying how factors in the situation create demands on the leader's behavior.[14]

Similar conclusions were offered by Matthews in a later review of the literature on situational aspects of leadership. He stresses "structuring of group behavior" as an important aspect of the definition of leadership, and mentions that the lack of adequate criteria has been the chief weakness in validating leadership measures.[15]

A research project, whose mission is the development of valid situational tests for the Army Leaders Course, has proposed the critical incident technique as a possibility.[16] Again, the difficulty is voiced that a valid definition of critical leadership behavior is lacking. Once defined, situations could be devised which would in-

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[14] Hemphill, op. cit., p. 102.

[15] J. Matthews, Research on the Development of Valid Situational Tests on Leadership, Part I - Survey of the Literature, American Institute for Research, Pittsburgh, 1950, pp. 65-66.

[16] Ibid., p. 67.

clude specific incidents in which leadership action was especially effective or ineffective. With the incidents classified and available, the hypothesis considers that potential leaders could be trained to solve intelligently problems that might arise in similar future incidents. Leadership would supposedly develop because the man would acquire traits and characteristics that would assist him in handling each situation.

In conclusion, research workers generally avoid defining leadership and estimate ten or more years before a valid definition will be forthcoming. The majority, however, agree that the leader, the people led, and the particular situation are vital elements to be considered. The following expressed opinion of Sandford is similarly held by other research authorities. Although admitting that knowledge about leadership is insufficient to do much in the way of selection and training, "our confusions are more enlightened than they were twenty or even ten years ago."[17]

LEADERSHIP TRAINING - MILITARY AND INDUSTRIAL

The military and industrial organizations have sought mostly the "practical" way in the accomplishment of their

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[17] American Psychological Association, "Military Leadership," by F. H. Sandford, Armed Forces Familiarization Course in Military Psychology, A Course of 14 Lectures given by the American Psychological Association, Inc., Washington, 1949, pp. XII-20.

alone would be justified in using [illegible] which is essentially effective or instructive. Even the [illegible] characteristics are available, the experimenter must [illegible] [illegible] should be prepared to solve [illegible] problems that might arise in similar future instances. Technicians could [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

missions. Their practical thinking, in advance of any valid "theoretical" support, has influenced their attempts at training for leadership. Their reasoning has been similar to that expressed by Tead in offering his practical method of developing the art of leadership:

> Finally, I do not apologize for offering this study without buttressing it at every turn by support from controlled scientific experiments. I merely explain that such experiments have thus far been lamentable few; and if a book were to wait upon such formal scientific corroboration, none would appear, perhaps, for another decade. In such a field of observable human behavior as that of personal leadership, we are not, however, without data which offer evidence that may fairly be said to allow a careful study to escape the stigma of armchair theorizing.[18]

The view long held by the Navy was expressed by the Chief of Naval Personnel in 1949:

> The means, the methods, and meanings -- or let us say, the skills, the mechanics, and the philosophy -- are elements fundamental to any art or profession. The practitioner must acquire the skill, become well versed in the mechanics (or techniques) and have some sort of philosophic aim, whether he engages in law, medicine, music, politics or the art of leadership. Some military leaders, even as some musicians, may be born artists; we acknowledge the phenomenon of genius. But the great majority are made. Self-made or otherwise trained, they acquired the necessary know-how the hard way through study, practice, and experience. The point being that we can learn to lead.[19]

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[18] Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership, McGraw-Hill New York, 1935, preface, p. viii.

[19] Sprague, op. cit., introduction.

[illegible]. Their greatest objection is aimed at any thing "traditional" [illegible], but [illegible] is [illegible] for [illegible]. Their reasoning has been similar to that expressed by Tead in prefacing his practical manual of leadership, The Art of Leadership:

> Finally, I do not apologize for offering this essay without elaborate substantiation of it at every turn by reports from controlled scientific experiments. I merely explain that some experiments have been for years impossible; and if I had to wait upon such formal scientific experimentation, none might appear, perhaps, for another decade. In such a field of observable human behavior as that of personal leadership, we are each, however, without data which might indicate that they are likely to [illegible] to allow a warrant which to assess the values of [illegible] speculation.[12]

The idea long held by the Navy was expressed by the Chief of Naval Personnel in [illegible]:

> The ships, the weapons, and machines -- or let us say, the skills, the technology, and the engineering -- are ultimately subordinated in any art of leadership. The practitioner must consider the skill, though well versed in the mechanics (or techniques) and have some form of philosophical aim, whether he engages in law, medicine, music, politics or the art of leadership. Some military leaders, even as some musicians, may be very [illegible] as illustrating the phenomenon of genius. But the great majority are made. Well-rounded and [illegible], they acquire the necessary knowledge and must pass through study, practice, and experience. The point being that we can learn to lead.[13]

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[12] Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership (McGraw-Hill, New York, 1935), preface, p. viii.

[13] [illegible], op. cit., Introduction.

Early informal methods stressed reading about, and imitation of, leaders or people occupying positions of authority. In industry and the military, supervisors at the foreman and Chief Petty Officer level were given little or no formal training. They were "leaders" primarily by virtue of position, with its attendant authority, and by longevity, with its accompanying status.

Pioneer efforts of formal training for leadership at the supervisory level consisted of lectures and discussions on qualities needed. Such training suggested that "imitation of your superiors, a study of a book on leadership, and everyday practice" will make you a leader. This method is not entirely extinct, although fortunately, it has been improved by utilization of better teaching methods.

The contents of later courses stressed the importance of a knowledge of human nature, principles of leadership, and attitudes needed in dealing with people. This "how" approach to leadership was illustrated effectively by problem solving, case studies, and later, by role-playing.

In 1948 the Bureau of Naval Personnel distributed a booklet entitled "The Petty Officer - A Leader" to all units, recommending its use as a basis for a course in leadership for petty officers. Comments requested from flag officers on its reception in the fleet revealed a prevalent feeling that leadership training for petty offi-

early informal methods stressed reading aloud, the initiation of, lessons or social studies projects, activities of excitement. In spelling the difficulty, exercises in the Gregson and Cole (1967) Spelling Level were given liberally as formal exercises. Not much "Seeking" obviously of phrase or meaning, with the stimulus immediately, and by knowledge with its accompanying stress.

Planned efforts to formal problems in laboratory is the experiment level provided in lessons and discussions on qualities needed. Use learning inventory Bill "Inventory of your attitudes", a study of a week in laboratory, and everyday problems' will make you a leader. This method is not entirely perfect, although theoretically, it has been improved in utilization of better teaching methods.

The method of table-number expressed the importance of a knowledge of some science subjectives or laboratory, and activities needed in dealing with people. This "Game" appeared to indicate the interpersonal effectiveness by possession, give criticism, and listen, by experimenting.

In this one lesson of social in-school development a booklet entitled "The Inner Citizen - A Leader" in attitude, recommending its use as a guide for a course in laboratory for pupil activities. Concerning informal pupil attitudes on the resolution in the class presents a problem inviting deep fundamental thinking the pupil cite-

cers was not being carried on in the fleet.[20] The author's opinion supports one comment that enlisted men are recommended for promotion with little or no thought being given to their leadership abilities. It seems ironical that the abundance of talk and literature stresses that the number one job of a petty officer is to be a leader, yet the formal training in this respect is badly neglected. General concurrence with these thoughts that leadership training within local commands was insufficient, led the Bureau of Personnel to suggest that such training should be a continuing, all hands evolution in the future.[21]

The success of such training will depend less on the booklet, and more on the instructional methods selected and used by the local commands, therefore, an example of the present training in human relations in industry might suggest a methodology.

Hoslett describes a training course based on experimental psychological evidence that trainees must participate in their own instruction in some ego-involving way before substantial, permanent learning occurs.[22] The conference method is advocated, wherein participation by

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[20] "Leadership Program," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, October, 1948, pp. 17-20.

[21] Ibid., p. 20.

[22] Schuyler D. Hoslett, "Training In Human Relations," reprinted from Personnel, Vol. 23, No. 2, American Management Association, New York, 15 pp.

members greatly determines the subject matter, level of discussion, and learning speed. The four steps of the conference include a group discussion of the nature of the problem, the causes of the problem, the right and wrong methods of handling it, and an analysis of ways to prevent the problem in the future. The conclusion is emphasized that the solution should be one formulated through the contributions of all group members and not the "proper" decision which the instructor possesses.

The first objective of Moslett's training is a genuine appreciation, understanding, and acceptance by the supervisors of the basic human needs of the workers on the job, and an understanding of the structure, functions, and usefulness of groups. The second, accomplished through role-playing, is acquisition of an approach which uses the concepts mentioned above without over-conscious effort.[23]

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[23] Ibid., pp. 8-9.

# CHAPTER V

# INDUSTRIAL TRAINING TECHNIQUES

## EVALUATION OF SUPERVISORY TRAINING

Before describing the training methods used currently in industry, it should be noted that evaluation of supervisory training based on concrete, factual evidence of improvement has been noticeably lacking. The problem of determining the amount of change in supervisory behavior has not as yet been solved by direct measurement; its determination exists as a challenge to the future. Various indirect methods have been attempted, but they are subject to other uncontrollable factors which very likely alter their validities.

The majority of evaluations have been based on questionnaires, voluntary letters received from trainees, and acclaims made by company executives; most of them attest to the worth of such programs by citing heightened morale, reduction in absenteeism and turnover, and other factors as being directly attributed to training.[1] These stated opinions are obviously subject to personal bias and are therefore considered to be of questionable value by many.

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[1] Loken and Strong, op. cit., p. 182.

CHAPTER I

## INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES PERTAINING

## CHARACTERISTICS OF INSTITUTIONAL SYSTEMS

Author identified the institutional behavior and economic-
ity in Lancaster, it should be noted that evaluations of
institutional behavior cannot be isolated. Various authors
of institutions can have contrasting interests. The problem
of determining the methods of change in institutional behavior
has not as yet been solved by common consensus. In in-
stitutional study is a challenge to the future. Various
institutional actions have been attempted, but only one relates
to other institutions because which may lately affe-
ctate activities.

The activity of institutions does not depend on
quantitativity, institutions cannot have personal
and relative value to consumer preferences and it does
appear in the media to such attention to action motivated
media, according to investigation and research, are other
factors as being directly attributed to institutions.[1] These
global activities are exclusively related to institutions that
are therefore considered to be of quantitative value in
study.

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[1] Lance and Taylor, op. cit., p. 120.

One questionnaire, entitled "How Supervise?", was devised to evaluate the results of supervisory training programs.[2] Two equated forms, one administered prior and one after the course, were used to measure the trainee's supervisory ability on the basis of answers to questions covering important aspects of supervisory ability. The author reported that two companies using this method during the experiment found significant gains, especially among noticeably poor supervisors.

An appraisal of "How Supervise?" points to the fact that the test is still not an objective measurement of supervisory performance; it is a measure of the variation in the supervisor's ability to arrive at the same answers as the experts, but "this is a far cry from proving that this test measures actual supervisory quality or ability as shown on the factory floor."[3]

Concrete evidence has been cited from studies where controlled observations were made before and after training. One source computed the average increase in general efficiency was 22.3% in a sample group of 1200 supervisors; worker production averaged an increase of 16.7%; turnover rates

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[2] Quentin W. File, "The Management of Supervisory Quality in Industry," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1945, 29, pp. 323-337.

[3] "Appraisal of Mr. File's Study," Personnel Journal, 1946, 24, pp. 252-253.

were reduced an average of 26%.[4] Other comparisons have been made where statistical data are available on such items as frequency and severity of accidents, absenteeism, number of suggestions, grievances, production data, and cost data. A word of caution in the use of such results was given by Fisher:

> In using such standards for measuring performance, management must make allowances for changing conditions within the organization. Other forces and conditions are always at work, and some of them may be the major factors in bringing about improvements or in offsetting gains which might otherwise have occurred.[5]

Although not precluding the need for continued search for more objective evaluation, circumstantial evidence of the benefits derived from supervisory training is considered sufficient to warrant its use. To deny the fact that training which is based on sound teaching techniques will not improve skills, knowledges, and attitudes, is "to say that education and training as developed over the years in educational institutions and business organizations have been a waste of time and human energy."[6] It is with a belief in sound teaching that the following methods are offered as a proposal for those contemplating the use of supervisory

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[4] Loken and Strong, op. cit., pp. 182-183.

[5] Fisher, op. cit., p. 29.

[6] Ibid., p. 27.

training in the Navy. No "canned" approach or "one best way" are advocated; rather are the most commonly used and potentially effective methods listed for consideration in tailoring a course to help meet a local need.

LECTURE METHOD

The lecture is one of the oldest and most widely used classroom teaching methods, and its uses and abuses have been as frequent in foreman training as they have been in our educational institutions. The features of the lecture are generally known because of its frequent use. In brief, it is a verbal presentation of information in which one or only a very few of those present aid in the dissemination of the material.[7] The pure lecture is almost unanimously discouraged as a method for supervisory training; therefore, it has often been supplemented by pictures, charts, or other visual aids. Even this combination is not considered effective for supervisory training, especially since training is considered to be a continuing activity. Some of the reasons for this include a lack of interest factor, excessive domination by the lecturer, no meaningful association of ideas to the experience of the trainee, and many more.

In criticism of the frequent use of the lecture, the point is often made that telling is not teaching, and

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[7] Ghiselli and Brown, op. cit., p. 355.

statistics to the study of "average" students or that have only the potentially reviews who use such computed data are pedagogically critical in assuming differences in maintaining a number to help make a local news.

Lecture Method

The lecture is one of the oldest but most widely used techniques known to mankind. For its sake and reason more than we frequent in further training as that have been in our educational institutions. The students of the lecture are generally taken because of its strength now. It lecture, is a verbal presentation of information in which one or only a very few of them present the information of the subject.[1] The lecture because is about monotonously disconnected or a method for experiencing realistic learning. If the other lecture conformed of pictures, films, or other visual aids. Then this information is not considered accurate for elementary-level history, especially since it is considered to be a motivating medium. One of the reasons for this include a lack of learning range, passive participation by the learner, an insufficient knowledge of ideas in the acquisition of the lecture, and many more.

In activities of the Tongued Age of the learner, the point is often made that lecture is not activities, and

[1] Gilbert and Jones, op. cit., p. 105.

listening is not learning.[8] Whereas this might also be applied to other teaching methods, it is a major criticism of the lecture as a training method because its past usage has largely neglected group participation. The conference, case study, and role-playing methods are more acceptable since they encourage more individual contribution and involve more of the trainee's senses in the learning process.

The use of the extended lecture is not advisable for supervisory training; but, when used for short periods of time, it has been advocated as a good method for presenting new information to large groups in a relatively brief time. Its effective use in this instance, however, requires association of ideas and experiences through verbal means; and this has often been difficult in foremen classes. The lecture has also served a useful purpose when little learning is involved, such as when points of information are being disseminated.[9]

An occasional lecture by a famous person, either within the organization or outside, has stimulated interest in the subject and gained partial acceptance; but it is doubtful that the long-run effect of such speeches includes changed supervisory behavior. Frequent lectures by men

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[8] U.S. Navy, Basic Teaching Principles, (Revised 1949) prepared by the Chief of Naval Air Technical Training, p. 56.

[9] Ghiselli and Brown, op. cit., p. 355.

of authority give rise to the status barrier, and therefore, are considered to produce negative training results.

In combination with other methods, the lecture seems to be more useful; in fact, modern industrial training has increasingly recognized this. Instead of constituting the basis of the training program, the lecture has assumed a supporting role.

CONFERENCE METHOD

Far from new, the conference technique has received increasing attention in recent years and has replaced almost completely the straight lecture method for training the lower executive and the foremanship levels. While it was formerly used by only a few training specialists, today it has become a regularly used tool for line management in many companies.[10] Pfiffner states that the conference should be the basis for all human relations training today.[11] Since this is the trend in the content of programs, it appears that the importance of conferences as a base for all supervisor training will become increasingly recognized.

The term "conference" has been subject to wide interpretations and variations; and, as one authority concludes,

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[10] National Industrial Conference Board Report No. 124, op. cit., p. 19.

[11] Pfiffner, op. cit., p. 13.

[illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [

it is a "broken-winded and pestiferous term."[12] Of the many synonyms for the term, "discussion" or "meeting" are probably most frequently heard. Such modifiers as "pure," "controlled," "guided," "informal," "determinate," and others are inserted to clarify an author's interpretation or variation; however, their inclusion often adds complexity to the issue and leaves the problem of definition of the term unsolved. The use of the term in this study will doubtless reflect parts of many of the above mentioned variations.

One definition of "conference method" which is accepted by many foreman training programs, is "a group training method in which problem situations of common interest are discussed in an effort to formulate a solution through the contributions of all of the group."[13] The uses of the method have been widely mentioned; one report has found that it is effectively used:

1. When an emergency arises and there is not enough time to wait for a scientific solution. It is a trouble-shooting device.

2. When a problem needs to be defined or an issue clarified.

3. When you seek to improve cooperation in an organization.

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[12] Beckman, R.O., How To Train Supervisors, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1940, p. 13.

[13] Gerald G. Chappell, Training of Supervisors, Bulletin No. 10, Industrial Relations Section, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, 1944, p. 26.

It is a "correspondent" and qualitative term, not in the sense expressed for the term, "consonance" or "harmony" and specifically most frequently used. Some qualities are "pure," "consonant," "solemn," "triumph," "celebrations," and terms used in limiting or accepting interpretation or varied ritual involved, hence involved often this consistently in the term and limits the meaning of morphology of the term ex-ample. The use of the word is not a sole study with individual medical parts of body or the above mentioned variations.

The originality of "multiform meaning" which is expressed by some foreign studying composers, is a good studying method. It will provide elements of common lumen and are literature in my effort to formulate a minimum between the consonations of "all of the terms."[12] The use of the method have been mainly conditional and result has found that it is necessarily stated:

1. That an emergency entity and there is not enough time to wait for a relevantly entity. It is a terrible-sounding title.

2. That a problem needs to be solved or is there elsewhere.

3. That you have to further consideration to an equivalent.

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[12] Fairman, John, and Jim Tyler Consultants. Tempo and Harmony, New York, 1980, p. 23.

[13] Donald T. Cameron, Problems of Consultants, Entirely Ex. Ed. Independent Publishers Publishers, Affiliates of Immunity, Pittsburg, Pa., p. 20.

4. When you need to work out clear understandings of responsibilities.

5. When you need to interpret policies and standards of conduct.

6. When you wish to show a need for further training.

7. When individuals in a group possess knowledge pertaining to the problem, and wish to pool the experiences and knowledge of the group for discussion and evaluation.[14]

From the foregoing, it appears that a basic ingredient for conference success is group participation on a subject which comes within the realm of experience and knowledge of the conferees. As an aid in improving supervision, the conference would seem to possess great possibilities for Chief Petty Officers as well as foremen, if membership were restricted to these persons of equal responsibility, authority, and rank.

A common core of procedure for the conference seems to coincide with that intended by the father of the conference method, Charles R. Allen. This procedure was divided into six steps by Beckman:

1. Assembling of experience from the group.

2. Selection of such experience data or facts as function directly on the problem.

3. Evaluation of pertinent data or experience.

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[14] U.S. Office of Education, "Report on the First National Training Conference for Distributive Education," 1939, p. 9.

4. Does you seem to meet our other requirements for of relationships.

5. Does you seem to indicate well-lay and strengths of reading.

6. Does you also to show a need for further training.

7. Does individuals in a group process involving participation of the involve, and also to see the relationships and problems of the group for effectiveness and evaluation.[4]

Upon the completion, it appears that a basic interaction for continuous growth in group participation is a method which seems stress the value of observation and evaluation of the members. As a mix in improving relationship, the conference would seem to benefit most characteristics the total group utilizes as well as themselves. If successful seem an effective in their process of group responsibility, achievement and goals.

A method used of observation for the conference seems to evaluate with that members in the course of the evaluation seem method, results in allow. This increases the giving have six steps by members:

1. Recognition of experiences from the group.

2. Identify of such experiences data on issue in question (result) or the problem.

3. Identify of experiences such as situation.

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[4]

Mr. Hilda Ir Dimmick, Chairman on the Chur. Training Institute Conference for Christian Ministry, 1955, p. 5.

4. Conclusion or decision as to the best procedure.

5. Planning to make the decision effective.

6. Carrying out the plan.[15]

Steps 5 and 6 are often not included in many conferences; their inclusion would seem to depend on the need for action on the problem discussed.

Utterback resolves any problem under conference consideration into two phases which he calls, (1) the exploration of the issue, and (2) the resolution of conflicts of opinion.[16] The exploratory phase consists of subdividing the issue, obtaining the opinions of the members on this, and establishing points of agreement and disagreement. The resolution of conflicts of opinion includes clarification of the reason for conflicts of opinion, reduction of the area of disagreement, and finally a synthesis of conflicting views.

Whereas the good conference is informal, it is not formless.[17] It is not designed for a pooling of ignorance, which has unfortunately too often been the case. The gener-

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[15] Beckman, op. cit., p. 14.

[16] William E. Utterback, Decision Through Discussion, A manual for Group Leaders, Published by the Dept. of Speech, Ohio State University, copyright New York Times, 1948, preface.

[17] Ibid., p. 8.

4. Consulting on problems in if so that [illegible]

5. Planning to meet the training activity.

6. Carrying out the plan.[1]

Item 2 and 3 are often not included in most course-manuals [illegible] or [illegible] in the case [illegible] action on the special classes.

Instructors should use a variety [illegible] differentiation [illegible] the lesson which is taught, (1) the [illegible] of the lesson, and (2) the [illegible] or [illegible] conditions.[18] The [illegible] means [illegible] or [illegible] the lesson, including the [illegible] of the [illegible] on [illegible], and establishing [illegible] of [illegible] and [illegible]. The [illegible] of [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] the [illegible] of the [illegible] of [illegible], [illegible] of the [illegible] of [illegible], and finally a [illegible] of [illegible] the [illegible].

[illegible] the [illegible] motivated is [illegible]. It is not [illegible].[19] It is not [illegible] the a [illegible] of [illegible], which has [illegible] [illegible] the [illegible]. The [illegible]

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[17] [illegible], op. cit., p. 1.

[18] [illegible], [illegible] [illegible] plan. [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

al consensus of opinion indicates that this pitfall is avoided by the inclusion of at least two ingredients; first, a good conference leader who leads by subduing his ego, and secondly, active participation by each individual member of the group in the solution of the problem. In the final analysis, the total value derived from the conference is equal to the sum of the contributions made by the individuals.

Utterback has described the role of the leader as one of moderator, guide, and spokesman for the group. The five functions which he performs include regulating, focusing, guiding, interpreting and pointing up the discussion.[18] The assignment of these functions to the leader is much more simple than their execution, but it is commonly held that anyone who will prepare himself adequately and take every opportunity to practice will soon develop the necessary skill.[19] His position is one of recognized importance, and the problem of his selection introduces many variations and implications. With much of training considered as a line function, companies have recognized a need for training their line management to be good conference leaders. This same function of training subordinates is considered a vital responsibility of the Chief Petty Officer; hence,

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[18] Ibid., pp. 11-19.

[19] Ibid., p. 55.

a) management or training techniques that this school is evolved by the industries of at least the Industrial Revolution, a good management living wage for labor to educate all sons, and secondly, easier participation of each individual member of the group in the activity of the profits. In the final analysis, the social value resulting from the conservative is based in the fact of the constitutional rights of the individuals.

Although the Industrial Age plays a major role of the Japanese mode of behavior, rules, and relationship the big group. The first foundation which is derived from Indian religions, Taoism, Confucius, Lao-Tzu-Lung and influence by the Buddhism. The arrangement of these foundations of the Japanese is much more simple than Chinese culture, but it is constantly held that anyone who will improve himself temporarily and have every opportunity to practice will even develop the necessary skill.[13] This position is one of respected [illegible], and the members of the minorities [illegible] many [illegible] and [illegible]. With [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] by a time function, remember [illegible] [illegible] the [illegible] [illegible] their time management on an [illegible] [illegible]. This [illegible] [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] in [illegible] a [illegible] [illegible] of the [illegible] [illegible] [illegible].

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[13] [illegible], op. cit.,
[14] [illegible], p. 15.

in gaining effectiveness in any group training which he undertakes, he too, may well need the skill to perform as a conference leader.

The general conclusion reached from its wide use indicates that the advantages of the conference method far outweigh the disadvantages. Beckman points to its prime advantage as being a "chocolate coated educational device."[20] "School," "class," "home-work," and other terms pose a mental block to most supervisors and Chief Petty Officers. The generally low educational level of these two groups, as previously noted, is given as a reason for their apprehension of any training which is labelled as education. Therefore, it is mostly the informality of the conference which appeals to these practical people and softens the stigma often associated with having to leave the shop to attend classes.

Two frequently mentioned advantages, both from the standpoint of interest aroused and from learning acquired, are the emphasis and opportunity given for participation. Hoslett cites several sources of evidence that "meaningful participation is a key to efficient learning in any field of activity."[21] The formalism of lecture and teacher-dominated methods are roadblocks to the participation de-

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[20] Beckman, op. cit., p. 15.

[21] Hoslett, op. cit., p. 4.

in nation-statehood in any group claiming unity in
uniqueness, or you may need the will to control in
a nonviolent fashion.

The general conclusion reached from the work
indicates that the maintenance of the nonviolence method in
wanting the circumstances. Groups unless in its group
advantage or using a [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]
"Indian," "black," "[illegible]," and other [illegible] [illegible]
model [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]
The [illegible] the [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]
as [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]
[

sired; hence, removal of these under the conference system is considered an advantage in opening up the channels for individual contribution.

The friendly "give and take" at the conference table develops fellowship and morale, both of which aid in the satisfaction of a basic human need -- a sense of belonging. This would be of especial advantage in the Navy situation, since Chief Petty Officers have separate living quarters, clubs, and mess facilities, and spend a great percentage of their off duty time together. It is quite probable that conferences would be "re-hashed" and new problems of mutual interest discovered at the table during meals and in the bunkroom after taps.

Supervisory training is usually designed to inculcate new, and often to change old, attitudes through observance of commonly accepted principles of operation. The conference method itself is based on sound psychological principles which state that, "policies and regulations are more acceptable to people who have participated in their formulation, partly because they understand them, partly because they are aware of the events and conditions which make them necessary, and partly because they have been consulted and have contributed to their formulation."[22]

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[22] Fisher, op. cit., p. 23.

already known, however, or which under the conditions given is conditioned or learning is special to the stimulus for individual manipulation.

The Talmudic "rule and order" in the conditions under which [illegible] are already, some of which are in the [illegible] of a single [illegible] [illegible] to [illegible]. This [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] to the [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

Once again, the advantage mentioned seems to have great significance for the Navy supervisor. Frequently the Chief Petty Officer needs "overtime" workers to repair an aircraft, fix a machine, or accomplish other tasks, outside of regular working hours. The willingness of the crew is often dependent on the recognized need for completion of the task at that time, and this need is best fulfilled if the Chief has the answer at hand. This is only one example of many which might be cited, where the supervisor's task may be lightened and his effectiveness in controlling the working crews be increased. It is greatly dependent on the competence of the supervisor in interpreting and conveying to his subordinates, acceptable reasons for such tasks or assignments. In summary, the conference method, with its psychological advantages, makes it more probable that the Chief Petty Officers will themselves accept the policies and regulations, and that because of them, the subordinates will also.

Closely allied with the previous advantage is that of creating opportunity for a two-way flow of communication. There are many methods of communication in an organization, but the conference, with its informal atmosphere, seems to be highly advantageous in letting supervisors "in on the word." Free flowing two-way communication is considered vital, but increasingly difficult, in large organizations

of today, and the important position of the supervisor in this key function is recognized more frequently.[23]

Another advantage frequently cited is that "the level of discussion is closely matched to the members' learning speed, since they do most of the talking."[24] This implies once again the presence of informality, participation, and common interest, which are considered vital in the learning process.

Not the least of the benefits to be considered is the development of teamwork. Fisher states, "Conferences foster teamwork, and teamwork is a prerequisite of successful administration in an age of specialization and large-scale operation."[25] Although full cooperative effort directed towards a common goal is the desire of any organization, it appears as a more important need in the armed services because their mission affects the nation. Team activity is stressed through competition among squadrons, ships, and stations as a means of upgrading the efficiency and effectiveness of the Navy. The fostering of teamwork through conferences at the command level should aid the Chief Petty Officer in doing a better job of supervision in his divisional work, since he will have a clearer view of the organizational objectives as related to his divisional

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[23] Pfiffner, op. cit., pp. 149-153.
[24] Hoslett, op. cit., p. 5.
[25] Fisher, op. cit., p. 23.

Some again, the average politician seems to have great difficulties for the two-sections. Frequently the other Party utilizes such "weaklies" moves to expect so already. It's a question of commonly other leaps, moving of popular winning hands. The utilization of the game is often inconsistent to the predominant need for mobilization of the base as this time, and this need is best fulfilled if the Chief and his senior is based. This is why the support of many voting which is lacking, where the supervisor's role may be diminished and its attractiveness to politicians was working more or increased. It is usually determined by the importance of the expression in representation and subject to its knowledge, accordingly support for voter leaks or activisments. In reality, the consumers prefer, also the organizational arrangements, which is more remarkable that the Chief Party Officers will increasing escape the politics and negotiations, and work without of them, for supporting the with also.

Clearly which all the previous elections is just of presenting opportunity for a two-way flow of research ability. There are many problems of communication in an organization, and the conference, with its formal atmosphere, seems to be highly ineffective in testing relationships "in the mind." Even direct one-to-one communication is sometimes vital, but increasingly difficult. In large organizations

of today, and the important position of the supervisor in this key function is recognized more frequently.[23]

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[23] Pfiffner, op. cit., pp. 149-153.
[24] Hoslett, op. cit., p. 5.
[25] Fisher, op. cit., p. 23.

of body, and the temporary neglect of the superstructure in this very formulation is unexplained even tentatively.[23]

Another advantage (reputedly) cited is that "the issue of difficulties in already existed in the workers' bureaucracy [sic], there was no work of the ministry."[24] This implies some kind of advantage of information, predictability, and common interests, which are characteristic also in the Soviet system.

And the lines of the quotation do no justice to an analysis of government. Either there, "contradictory functions" are treasured, and therefore is a prerequisite of successful administration in an age of specialization and large-scale operation.[25] Although full cooperation effort diminish towards a common goal in the design of any organization, it appears as a more important need in the social sciences because their aims affect the public. This authority is strengthened by the possibility of some compromise, which, and addition to a means of expanding the efficiency and effectiveness of the body. The technical or bureaucratic structure underlying at the common level should all the other [illegible] offices in order a unique [illegible] of [illegible] in the civilional work, since no will have a clearer idea of the qualitative [illegible] subjectives as values to an [illegible]

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[23] [illegible], op. cit., pp. [illegible].
[24] [illegible], op. cit., p. [illegible].
[25] [illegible], op. cit., p. [illegible].

responsibilities.

Despite the many good features of the conference, it is, however, not without its disadvantages as a training method. Its potential benefits are often never realized in many training programs; and, of the many reasons for this failure which might be listed, the majority seem to be classified as operational shortcomings. As previously mentioned, the successful conference is a group process; hence, failure on the part of individuals to contribute something worthwhile to the discussion will result in negligible accomplishment. Meaningless contributions of high sounding words and idealistic phrases, side debates between individuals on irrelevant or minor points, and excessive domination of the "floor" by the leader or individual members, are common occurrences in conferences. The change from the autocratic lecture method to the democratic group process has tended to make the participants go "overboard" in their efforts to contribute, thus often clouding the issues and stifling progress towards the accomplishment of training objectives. In her discussion of the process of collective thinking, Coyle emphasizes the various roles assumed by individuals and realistically describes how these lead to objectionable results in many conferences:

> Personal habits of participation further affect the process as it continues. The constant talkers, the orators, the silent

[illegible]

Inside the body and features of the [illegible], it is, however, not without its disadvantages in a [illegible] method. The [illegible] analysis was often [illegible] in many [illegible] and, of the many reasons for this failure which could be listed, one may justly [illegible] classified as [illegible] [illegible]. As previously [illegible], the successful [illegible] in a group [illegible] [illegible] on the [illegible] of individuals in [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] to the [illegible] will result in [illegible] [illegible]. [illegible] [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

> members, all serve to determine the course of discussion. The speed of response is a further factor. Individuals react some slowly, some promptly to the flow of suggestion. In the course of a discussion there will often occur belated responses to ideas farther upstream which have just come through to articulation. Individuals with stock panaceas can be counted on to trot out their hobbies, no matter how remote they may seem from the subject in hand. Many discussions will contain also participants with diffuse minds who contribute large masses of unrelated and unorganized material.[26]

Similar results as described above have been experienced in foreman training; and to combat these, many companies have structured their conferences by using group leaders who follow discussion outlines as guides. One topic is usually covered during one or more meetings as a means of overcoming preoccupation with any one subject. The purpose of such arrangement is to combine the desireable features of direction and guidance with those of informality and participation. It is for these reasons that Beckman offers the directed discussion technique to "transform the 'blarney' and 'word-guessing games' which characterize so many supervisory training meetings into media for genuine constructive thinking."[27] However, the degree of

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[26] Grace L. Coyle, "Social Process in Organized Groups, New York, Richard D. Smith, 1930, pp. 187-188.

[27] Beckman, op. cit., p. 9.

[illegible] methods, all serve to determine the course of discussion. The speed of study can be a further factor. Individuals vary widely, even probably in the time it takes to study. In the course of a discussion there will often occur tangential ideas further questions which have just come through to participation. Individuals also have questions who be crucial to it but that really, no matter how remote they may seem from the subject in hand. Only discussion will contain also participants who differ and who therefore have ideas to contribute and unexplored material.[26]

Similar results as described above have been experienced in Freedom Seminars and in similar fora, many participants have structured their conferences by using group leaders who follow discussion guidelines as noted. The topic is usually covered during one or more meetings at a rate of approximate correspondence with any one seminar. The purpose of this procedure is to enable the participants freedom of discussion and guidance with force of informality and participation. It is the case proposed that Dewey offers the strongest curriculum techniques in "growing from the inherent and [illegible] general rule, experience has so many unnecessary [illegible] leading into [illegible] [illegible] thinking."[27] However, the degree of

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[26] Chris L. Kelly, Training Programs in Industrial Groups, New York, Edward L. Bernays, 1950, op. cit., [illegible].

[27] Dewey, op. cit., p. 3.

acceptance under these conditions depends greatly on the extent of leader domination, and the flexibility of course content in meeting the felt needs of the supervisors as they see them. In conclusion, the difficulty, and consequently a disadvantage of the conference, is the problem of determining what material is to be included, how it is selected, and finally, how it is disseminated. The task of balancing these factors is considered momentous, and past failures in this respect have, therefore, caused disadvantages to be charged against the conference.

Criticisms other than operational which are made against this method include its slowness as a training device, and consequently, its costliness.[28] The time and cost elements appear as more important considerations in industrial training, but they can not be overlooked when considering the Navy situation. The selection of times and places of meetings introduces disadvantages, which, of course, might be levelled against other training methods as well as the conference. However, the change from the pressure of the shop to the informality of the conference is often difficult during the day, whereas a lecture or movie might be taken "in stride." Again, the Navy, with training constituting the major portion of its mission, possesses advantages over the production minded industrial

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[28] Ghiselli and Brown, op. cit., p. 356.

Perception under-lying conditions response greatly in the manner in which [illegible], and the flexibility of [illegible] continue to provide the [illegible] of [illegible] as they are taken. In conclusion, the difficulty, and [illegible] quantity a discussion of the [illegible], in the process of determining what material is to be included, and it is selected, and finally, how it is [illegible]. The use of [illegible] [illegible] is [illegible] [illegible], and most [illegible] in this proposal here. Therefore, [illegible] [illegible] to be changed against the [illegible].

[illegible] other [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] against this [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] of a [illegible] [illegible], [illegible] [illegible], [illegible] [illegible].[23] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible

organization.

In summary, the conference has possibilities for greater Navy use, but it is unlikely that any one conference method would be sufficient for Navy-wide purposes. As in industry, the selection should be made upon consideration of the foregoing factors and others which are associated with the local conditions.

ROLE-PLAYING

Role-playing, which is an outgrowth of the psychodrama or socio-drama, is a recent method for training foremen. The advocates of this method have indicated its possibilities in many training situations, but foremanship training has adopted it primarily for human relations training.

The central idea of role-playing is the assignment of various members of the training group to roles, and the acting out of problem situations. The problem is usually one suggested by the group or the leader during the course of a training discussion, thus indicating the spontaneous and unrehearsed acting that is encouraged. Variations in procedure exist, some of which are mentioned by Bavelas as:

1. Strict definition of the problem situation and the role to be played, thus constituting a demonstration.

organization.

In theory, the individual as individualize [illegible] greater sort now, but it is certainly true that the traditional method would be satisfied for non-wise purposes. As in history, the relationship exists to some good [illegible] of the [illegible] trends and [illegible] which the [illegible] with the [illegible] conditions.

Conclusion

Individuality which is an [illegible] of the [illegible] stress of [illegible]. It is [illegible] which [illegible] [illegible]. The [illegible] of this [illegible] [illegible] possibility in [illegible] situations. The [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] is [illegible] [illegible] [illegible].

The [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

2. Loose definition of the problem so that "play" is highly spontaneous and the outcome almost unpredictable.

3. Consideration of single or multiple incidents.

4. Previous instruction for some roles as to how to react if certain events occur, or instruction limited to being told to react 'naturally.'[29]

The selection of which role-playing procedure to use, like all training, is considered dependent on the individual diagnosis of the organization in which training is to be conducted. One source cites that, after several years of trial and error in the use of role-playing for teaching specific social skills, it found a need for, "(1) the use of carefully planned 'stereotype' situations as basic training material, and (2) rather close controls of all roles being played, with the exception of the role primarily under consideration -- that one being left entirely free to be played as the individual sees fit."[30]

A typical role-playing session would consist of the following steps:

1. Choosing the problem.

2. Agreeing on the details of the case.

3. Defining the roles.

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[29] Alex Havelas, "Role Playing and Management Training," Sociatry, June, 1947, Vol. 1, pp. 183-184.

[30] Ibid., p. 187.

4. Clear definition of the problem as task "play" is highly approximate and the actions always approximations.

5. Manipulation of single or multiple factors.

6. Problem centering on the same areas in so far as really if reality always centers, so Instructor finds it helpful to point "natural".[29]

The selection of units role-playing procedure to use, like all matters, is contingent primarily on the individual objectives of the experiment in which training is to be conducted. The source cited here, after several years of trial and error in the use of role-playing for developing specific social skills, it found a good fit, "1) the use of basically phenomenon transcendental situations in which training occurred, and 2) without close consideration of its roles being acted, also the complexity of the most intensely under consideration -- that one being left entirely free to be shaped by the individual involvement."[30]

A typical role-playing session should consist of the following steps:

1. Introducing the problem.

2. Dwelling on the details of the case.

3. Setting the stage.

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[29] Alex Sherriffs, "Role Playing and Management Training," Personnel, June, 1951, Vol. 1, No. 1:1-12.

[30] Ibid., p. 187.

4. Defining the goal of the people not acting -- clarifying the place of the observers.

5. The role-playing itself.

6. The discussion following the role-playing.[31]

The above steps indicate that role-playing is a group action and not limited to the actors. Group participation is encouraged and provided, as was the case in the conference method. However, role-playing is considered to be of more therapeutic value, since the participation involves concrete action rather than verbal contributions. Many programs have found the use of sound recording as an indespensable tool during its sessions. Since recording and playing back speeches is a procedure used in public speaking training, it has similar advantages for the supervisors in encouraging self-development and improving his ability to speak effectively.[32]

The reasons given by Tyler for using role-playing in human relations training at the American Type Founders Company are representative of those which were instrumental in its adoption by other companies. This company noted that a gap existed between theory and practice in the human

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[31] A.A. Liveright, "Role-Playing in Leadership Training," Personnel Journal, April, 1951, Vol. 29, p. 413.

[32] Michael J. Jucius, Personnel Management, Revised edition, Richard D. Irwin Inc., Chicago, 1951, p. 287.

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[31] A.A. Liverright, "Role-Playing in Leadership Training," Personnel Journal, April, 1951, Vol. 29, p. 413.

[32] Joseph C. Jaeger, Principal Management, Reviewed addition, Student to Jewish Law, Chicago, 1951, p. 217.

relations field. After a careful study, it was found that supervisors gave verbal approval to promoting greater human understanding through the use of principles and techniques, but that under the stress of the shop day, they experienced difficulty in relating these principles to actual problems. A second cause was the interference of inbred attitudes and old habits with their efforts to improve.[33] The theory on which role-playing was adopted was that, by making the situation as realistic as possible, the acceptance and practice of these principles would aid in combatting former bad habits in dealings with subordinates.

The advantages accorded this training method by its proponents are many. However, it is generally recognized that its relative newness in foreman training has precluded extensive evaluation; and therefore, its merits may be overestimated.

The most frequently mentioned advantage is that role-playing "shows how" rather than "tells how". Since the Navy training manuals stress learning by doing, this might have considerable application for Chief Petty Officer training. Bavelas mentions that, in terms of effecting on-the-job behavior changes, actual practise as given in role-playing sessions has several advantages over the pure dis-

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[33] A. K. Tyler, "A Case Study of Role Playing," Personnel, Sept., 1948, 25, pp. 136-142.

relations (Cohen, Alfred & Weiss) & Kelly). In the Cohen Study, researchers gave verbal approval to performing certain conservative or risky methods and use of principles and techniques, but that became the answer at the end day. They experienced difficulty in relating these behaviors to actual practice. A second cause was the interference of values, attitudes and old habits with their efforts to improve.[77] The Group on Action Research-Industry was already one step, by making the attempt to establish a relation, the researchers and managers of their organization would die in accessible inner and outside in dealing with innovations.

The disadvantage attached this training method of the researchers are many. However, it is generally recognized that the priority measure in foreign training is gaining at expansion evaluation and improvement. It might only be observations.

The most frequently mentioned disadvantage is that principle "some law" rather than "this law". Since the many problem methods always lacking by using, this study data simultaneously application for total long lasting training. Because machine tool, in terms of effective research and technical-science, actual problems is given in relating digging practice the research difficulties that are some dis-

[77] G. G. Cohen, "A Case Study of Risk Taking," Personnel, 1971, (Vol. 23, pp. 229-233).

cussion and other methods.[34] The interest and participation are present, as in the conference, but an added feature is the "actions speak louder than words" theory. During re-plays, various points of view can be demonstrated, and their effectiveness evaluated by the group. Since there is usually no one best method for handling a human relations problem, these contributions by his peers gives the foreman a consensus of opinion view toward solution.

Another point emphasized is that role-playing makes a person sensitized to himself and sensitized to the effects of his actions on others.[35] The first point is illustrated by the fact that it has often happened that a person makes the same mistakes in role-playing that he unconsciously makes on the job; and immediately after the play, he points out his own errors. The second effect, becoming sensitized to the feelings of his subordinates, is made possible because other members of the group play the subordinate roles and are able to express the effects caused by his actions. This latter is not generally available in real life situations or in a conference, and is therefore considered of great aid to the supervisor who is trying to do a better job but who is unaware of the effect that his actions have on subordinates.

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[34] Bavelas, op. cit., p. 185.

[35] Ibid., pp. 184-185.

combine and their motions.[24] The theories and predictions are present, as in his scientific, but an major feature is the "motions space inside their minds" theory. Saying metaphor, matter plays at play and in consciousness, and their effectiveness evaluated in the group. Since there is usually no one left behind to oversee, a lower relativism arises, these conditions in the space where his freedom a consciousness of relation also beyond existence.

Another point mentioned is that role-playing makes a person accustomed to "accept the conditions of the situation of his actions to others."[25] The first point is illustrated by the "it's not it is not after happened that I gained make the view interesting in role-playing that is commonly by going in the lore, and immediately after the play, in order and in the appear. The second effect, concerning consciousness to the feelings of his motivations, is more possible because other members of the group play the conditions roles and are able to answer for efforts toward by the actions. This latter is not generally available in real life situations or in a conference, and is therefore allowed of great use in the instruction not in trying to a better job but also in memory of the street and the actions have in experiments.

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[24] Mead, op. cit., p. 164.

[25] Ibid., pp. 164-165.

Dramatization of a situation being discussed provides a good basis of common experience for the group. This has further significance to everyone, both as interest and participation factors, when all help in setting up the situation. Future references during any discussion would therefore have more meaning for the group members, maintain their interest, stimulate their participation, and supposedly aid in the learning process. Since role-playing is most often used with the conference method, it has especial value as a spontaneous device for putting an idea or discussion into practice. This immediate application of words into meaningful action is usually given preference to the "cold storage" theory, whenever possible.

Tyler's role-playing experiment revealed this as a possible means for knowing the good foreman from the bad. His company noted "a terrific drop in the performance of some persons, and on tracing it back, have learned that there seems to be a direct correlation between good performance in role-playing and good performance in the factory."[36] If this possibility were explored further and found valid, its use in selecting and training petty officers in the Navy is obvious.

It appears that, like the conference method, role-

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[36] Tyler, op. cit., p. 138.

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playing has disadvantages which are in great part operational in nature. Several of these are listed by Liveright, who mentions that role-playing is more difficult to use effectively than other methods.[37] Unless effectively introduced, the group may resent the technique as childish. The casting of parts often is badly handled in that embarrassment is caused by including those who really did not want to take part. More responsibilities are placed on the leader than in the conference because he must be able to "do" as well as "tell how." Another source mentioned that the cases are often difficult to develop so as to exclude non-essentials and still match the needs of the groups and shop conditions.[38]

In addition, unless carefully guarded against, many groups have placed major emphasis on acting rather than the problem involved. A final disadvantage, which is worthy of remembering, is that "a direct question or problem may be more effective and take less time."[39]

These disadvantages suggest that role-playing can be too lengthy, less efficient, and ineffective, unless properly used; its proper use demands a skillful leader, even more so than the conference. Under suitable conditions, there

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[37] Liveright, op. cit., p. 416.

[38] Tyler, op. cit., p. 138.

[39] Liveright, op. cit., p. 416.

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appears possibility for wider use of role-playing in Navy training, especially in the direction of human relations training for Chief Petty Officers.

THE CASE METHOD

Supervisory training has practised the case method since World War I, but its recent use has been more widespread, especially as an aid in training supervisors to cope with human problems. The case method is defined as an educational method which develops the trainee's ability to recognize problems, discover and analyze pertinent facts, and make decisions that will apply best under certain sets of circumstances. An essential feature of the case method is a discussion of the various points involved in the problem and the approaches to its solution; therefore, foreman training has usually considered the case method as a supplement to the conference. As a means of making the training more realistic, interesting, and practical, the cases discussed are usually taken from actual experiences.[40]

The case method, like the conference, has variations, most of which can be classified under the headings of "free" and "determinate." In the determinate method, the

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[40] Russell J. Greenly, "The Case Method In Supervisory Training," Personnel Series No. 56, American Management Association, New York, 1942, p. 33.

appears possibility for wider use of role-playing in army training, especially in the training of human relations training for [illegible] Army officers.

The Case Method

[illegible] [illegible] popularized the case method about [illegible], and its recent use has been more wide-spread, especially as an aid in training supervisors to cope with human problems. The case method is defined as an educational method which develops the student's ability to recognize problems, discover and analyze pertinent facts, and make decisions that will apply when under certain sets of circumstances. An essential feature of the case method is a discussion of the various points involved in the problem and the alternatives to the existing practices. Business training has usually considered the case method as a supplement to the conference. As a means of making the training more realistic, interesting, and practical, the cases discussed are usually taken from actual experiences.[44]

The case method, like the conference, has variations, each of which may be classified under the headings of "true" and "prescriptive." In the prescriptive method, the

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[44] [illegible] J. [illegible], "The Case Method in Supervisory Training," Personnel Series No. [illegible], American Management Association, New York, [illegible], p. [illegible].

leader attempts to guide the group toward a best solution based on his own opinion or group opinion. The free type assumes there is no best answer and places emphasis on stimulating the conferees to think in terms of broad areas of leadership, rather than forcing a set of principles or solution on the learner. The majority of foreman training has followed the former method, with the group opinion being considered as the "best" solution.[41] The reason for this is that, since there is no answer book for the problems, it is believed that the supervisor will accept more readily any conclusion which he and his colleagues have established. A further assumption is that the commonly accepted principles will be repeated in many different problems, and that frequent use of them in discussions will gain acceptance by the supervisor. With little thought or reflection, he will apply these principles on the job.

The advocates of the case method point to the realistic aspect as being stimulating and practical. Since many of the unpleasant parts of a supervisor's job are his personnel problems, the case method aids in prevention and cure of these by teaching him to foresee, diagnose, and cure many which confront him.

Holding a different viewpoint are those who feel that

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[41] Conference Board Report No. 124, op. cit., p. 25.

this method views the supervisor's job as a series of problems; consequently, the supervisor becomes too analytical about most phases of his work. Another opinion believes that every human problem is different and that general principles can not be applied effectively to specific problems.

In conclusion, it must be stated that companies do not rely on the case method alone; on the contrary, they use it in conjunction with other teaching methods. As a means of developing an analytic approach to problems and of verbally relating the problems to actual experience, the case method has much in its favor.

TRAINING AIDS

Most sources hesitate to consider training aids under the category of a teaching method; they prefer to emphasize their use as aids to other methods. Regardless of their classification, training aids are used widely in supervisory training and are therefore worthy of consideration.

Training aids have been divided into four types: synthetic training devices, visual training aids, audio-visual training aids, and auditory training aids.[42] The two categories used most commonly in supervisory training

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[42] M. E. Callahan and H. C. Rose, "Use of Training Aids," Industrial Arts and Vocational Education, November 1946, p. 436.

Life without class the supervisor's job as a matter of journal [illegible] consequently, the supervisor because the analysis which must [illegible] or his [illegible]. Because optimum helpers that every [illegible] problem is different and that general principles can not be applied effectively to specific problems.

In conclusion, it must be stated that accounts do not vary so far that [illegible] in the [illegible], they are if in [illegible] with other [illegible] methods. As a means of [illegible] or [illegible] supervisor to [illegible] or [illegible] [illegible] the problems in [illegible] [illegible], the [illegible] [illegible] in the [illegible].

Training Aids

[illegible] available to [illegible] training aids [illegible] the [illegible] of a [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] to [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

are visual and audio-visual, and they include posters, blackboards, strip film, silent films, and sound-motion pictures.

Training aids have contributed to the learning process in many ways. Among those noted are: adding interest to the training situation, helping to clarify verbal explanations, presenting the information in less time, focussing the attention of all the trainees on one item at the proper time, and appealing to more than one sense. There exists no stereotyped pattern for their use, but evidence indicates that careful preparation should be made by considering such factors as the instructional purpose, flexibility, timeliness, simplicity and unity, colorfulness, and visibility of the aid.[43]

The Navy is well acquainted with training aids, since they were used extensively during and after the recent war. However, a criticism of military use of aids was made by a consensus of opinions of educators who were members of the various services during the war.[44] The complaint was that the attempt was often made to place the heaviest burden of the teaching process on the aid rather than on the teacher. Industrial supervisory training has experienced this

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[43] Ibid., pp. 437-8.

[44] M. M. Chambers, "Armed Forces Educational Programs," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, revised edition, Macmillan Company, New York, 1950, pp. 58-64.

are visual and audio-visual, and they include pictures, filmstrips, slides, film, slides, and sound-motion pictures.

Failing also into criticism's in the learning process in many ways. Being those which have activity tendency to the learning situation, relating to already formal experiences, presenting the information in less time, focusing the attention of all the students on one item at the proper time, and accomplish in more less the means. Their effects do stereotyped values for their use, and evidence indicates that certain principles should be made by considering such factors as the individual needs. Flexibility, timeliness, simplicity and ability, motivations, and suitability of the aid.[15]

The body is still considered also building with, since they were less subjectively minded and often the social use. However, a criticism of literary use of also was seen as a connection of notions of teachers and some concern of the various approaches leading to use.[16] The medium was that the students are often seen to have the learned meaning of the learning process in the all range that as the audio-aid. Instructional materials provided the experienced with

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[15] Ibid., pp. 414-6.

[16] E. W. Dunham, "Some Recent Scientific Findings," Instructional of Elementary Geography, Yearbook Activities Committee, New York, 1951, pp. 3-10.

same difficulty, despite the fact that the consensus is that training aids alone cannot do a training job. However, present supervisory training programs strive to guard against this error by proper use of them as a supplement to other methods.

# CHAPTER VI

## CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### SUMMARY

This study has discussed supervision and supervisory training in an effort to offer a proposal for improving supervision in the Navy. The broad field of supervision has been reduced to the two or three lower levels in industry, commonly referred to as the foreman level. A search for an adequate Navy counterpart revealed the Chief Petty Officer as meeting similar requirements for the supervisory functions performed by the foreman. Further basis for comparison was obtained from an historical recording of the evolutions of these two men, their jobs, selection procedures, and supervisory training. Navy schooling and the influence of the Bureau of Personnel on the Chief Petty Officer were indicated. Having compared the two supervisory positions, a discussion of leadership and the practicability for training leaders were presented. In this presentation, the findings and opinions of research workers were contrasted with those of the practical men of action in industry and the military forces. Evidence of Navy and industrial attempts to develop supervisory ability through formal training was indicated, and a review was made of the current training methods for foremen to determine which were the

# CHAPTER VI

## CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### SUMMARY

This study has examined supervision and supervisory practice in an effort to arrive a proposed job description for supervision in the navy. The broad field of supervision has been reduced to the one or three lower levels in industry, commonly referred to as the foreman level. A search for an adequate duty description revealed the fact that officer as leading petty officer constituted the majority problems performed by the foreman. Further basis for description was obtained from an historical evaluation of the evolution of their job, their duty zone, relations involved, and supervisory practice. Duty connecting the relationse of the survey of performed by the chief petty officer were included. Having compared the two supervisory positions, a discussion of leadership and the personalities the supervising leaders were considered. In this presentation, the function and relations of research analyses were satisfied as also those of the practical use of action in industry and the military career. Problems of duty and individual strength to overall supervisory ability through formal training was included, and a review was made of the current training methods the foreman in industry could give the

most commonly used and potentially effective for military use. Those methods selected were described, discussed pro and con, and offered as a proposal for improving supervision by Chief Petty Officers through classroom training within local commands.

The material pertaining to the foreman was obtained from published books, pamphlets, and current periodicals. Navy periodicals, current official publications, and personal experience of the author, furnished the information concerning the Chief Petty Officer and his training. Data on leadership and training methods were obtained from a wide variety of available literature.

## CONCLUSIONS

This study has indicated many important points which might well be considered by anyone proposing formal training as an approach to improving supervision. These are suggested as guiding principles for any such program; the list is not complete and no implication is made that all those included are applicable in every situation.

1. There is, as yet, no "one-best" formal method of training supervisors. A combination of sound teaching techniques should be determined for each particular situation. Selection of methods should be primarily based on the material being considered, the educational background

many economic risks and particularly significant for activities
use. These matters relating more intensively, discussed in
and use, are offered as a proposal for improving prior-
ships by later-acting officers through increasing existing
within local communities.

The material particularly to the lessons and relations
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concerning the other risks effects and its activity. This
of investment and training without were obtained from a
wide variety of available literature.

<u>Conclusion</u>

This study has indicate some important points which
might will be considered by women contemplating formal partic-
ipation as an employee or independent entrepreneur. These are
categorized as global; however the way each property the
that is not mentioned and be individual it would that all
those factors are applicable in every situation.

In those is, as yet, no "cookbook" formal method of
studying entrepreneur. A combination of broad analytic
techniques should be developed for each particular situa-
tion. Analysis of methods should be primarily based on
the material being constituency the theoretical descriptive

and experience of the trainees, and the organization and circumstances under which the training is to be conducted.

2. To be most effective, training must be accepted by the trainee. This implies that the goals and approaches to them should be determined by the training group; when such are consistent with the objectives of the organization, the probability of acceptance of the training content is increased.

3. The social atmosphere of the supervisor's place of work should approximate the teaching atmosphere of the classroom. The extent to which the supervisor is permitted to put what he learns into practice is greatly determined by the relationships between the two. In fact, the causes for many unsuccessful training programs have been traced to mere verbal acceptance of training objectives by the higher echelons unaccompanied with more positive support through action.

4. Training for leadership is a continuing process, because leadership is dynamic and constantly changing. The leader, the led, and the particular situation are the three primary factors of leadership, and a change in any one of these alters the demands made on the product.

5. There exists no objective or direct measurement of supervisory ability. Consequently, all attempts at evaluation of supervisory training have used indirect

measures, which are usually subject to uncontrollable factors. Any such results should be valued accordingly, although not discarded as wholly useless.

6. Active participation is a key to efficient supervisory training. Evidence accumulates that meaningful participation is a key to efficient learning in any field of activity. This hypothesis has been accepted for many years in teaching job skills, but it has only recently been adopted for human relations training.

7. The supervisor must recognize the individual and individual differences in his working relationships with people. The worth and dignity of the human man is an active, creative force throughout the world. Its impact on the working atmosphere has been felt and must be reconciled by fair supervisory treatment, supported by action as well as being expressed verbally.

8. The conference method, or some variation of it, is rapidly becoming the basis for all formal supervisory training. With the major emphasis in supervisory training being placed on human relations, the conference method has been selected because of its psychological and teaching advantages in this field.

9. Supervisory training should be conducted among trainees of comparable position and experience. The size of the training group should be such as to allow the partici-

pation desired; past experience indicates that groups of ten to twenty-five members give successful results.

10. Training programs should be flexible, although not totally lacking in direction. Those which are rigidly structured and controlled regarding times of meeting, attendance requirements, program content, and other factors, have been generally less successful. In other words, training officers and program directors must also recognize supervisors as individuals with significant differences, and must consider these when undertaking any programs which affect them.

11. A sense of belonging is a basic human need, and it can be fostered greatly through cooperative group action in any organization. Supervisory training aids in this process by relating individual effort to organizational goals.

12. Supervisory training is an excellent means of communication since it usually employs non-authoritarian methods. Acceptance of the policies and regulations by the supervisory force will greatly enhance the possibility that the rank and file will also.

Emphasis is again made that these are some, and by no means all, of the suggested principles which were gained from the literature.

policies further; and experience indicates that people of ten in twenty-five members give invaluable service.

10. Training programs should be flexible, although not lacking in direction. These months are eligible students and participating organizations should be asked, educational requirements, personal maturity and other factors, have been generally less successful. In other words, studies of officers and program directors have also revealed differences in individuals who eliminated during assessment and must consider those who individually day assessment notes after that.

11. A lesson of Kalamazoo is a basic human need, and is only be satisfied qualify through concentrate group action in any organization. Experiment training also is high problems by relating individual efforts to organizational goals.

12. Experiment training is an effective means of communication where it usually employs communication methods. Agreements of the policies and regulations by the experiment team will usually increase the possibility that the group and its file will also.

Somewhere in equity such that those are good, and if we mean all, of her responsible activities, without more, lacked from the liberalism.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are offered to improve the effectiveness of training within local commands:

1. Wider dissemination of related information on training conducted within local commands should be made as a means of further guidance to training officers in the fleet units.

2. The Navy should be acquainted with the objectives and methods of supervisory training conducted by progressive industrial organizations for possible adoption of effective training techniques.

3. All officers and the higher rated petty officers should be schooled in the conference procedure and the techniques of conference leadership.

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APPENDIX I

# YOUR NAVY CAREER No. 33

UNITED STATES NAVY VOCATIONAL INFORMATION BRIEF

## Electrician's Mate (EM)

Large naval vessels have been, in instances of emergency, the sources of supply of electrical power for several coastal cities. The operation and repair of electrical plants powerful enough to provide such service, as well as the maintenance and repair of the ship's electrical equipment, is the work of the Electrician's Mates.

### DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Electrician's Mates install, operate, maintain, and repair such equipment as generators, electrical motors, searchlights, yardarm blinkers, and the lighting and power-distribution systems found aboard ship. They test circuits for shorts, grounds, and other casualties, and perform electrical shop work including the refinding of armatures and the maintenance of storage batteries.

*Some of the duties of Electrician's Mates are as follows:*

(1) Circuits and wiring: Install or replace power and lighting circuits aboard ship; repair open circuits; find and clear grounds; and run wiring for fans, call bells, and lights.

(2) Distribution Panels and Switchboards: Clean, check, and repair distribution panels, switches, and switchboards; lubricate controllers; and maintain and repair voltage regulators.

(3) Transformers: Maintain and repair current and voltage transformers.

(4) Generators: Clean, lubricate, and repair generating equipment.

(5) Motors: Clean, lubricate, and perform upkeep on electric motors; and wind, bake, and insulate armatures and field coils for electric motors.

(6) Electrical Equipment: Repair electrical equipment of ship's boats, including the ignition system; and repair electrical appliances such as toasters, electric drills, and sterilizers.

(7) Batteries: Install and repair storage batteries.

(8) Searchlights: Operate and perform upkeep on searchlights.

(9) Tests and Inspections: Test and inspect all shipboard electrical power apparatus using voltmeters, ammeters, ohmmeters, wattmeters, and circuit analyzers.

(10) Electrical Connections: Connect electrical power machinery and electrical power equipment including generators and distribution switchboards; splice wire and cable; and solder electrical connections.

(11) Blueprints: Read and prepare electrical sketches, diagrams, and blueprints.

*In the course of their training and experience, Electrician's Mates develop skills in and a knowledge of the following:*

(1) Electricity: Electrical theory and its practical shipboard application in motors, generators, transformers, switchboards, control appliances, and other electrical equipment; three-wire and four-wire transmission systems; alternating and direct current; wiring diagrams and electrical circuits; Ohm's and Kirchoff's laws; and electron theory.

(2) Power Equipment: Theory, construction, and characteristics of A.C. and D.C. motors, controllers, generators, voltage regulators, and current and voltage transformers; and the layout and installation of switchboards and panels.

(3) Theory: Theory of the vacuum tube; theory and operating principles of the various types of synchro units used in interior communications and fire control; theory of the gyroscope; and the theory of dry cell and storage batteries.

(4) Mathematics: Ratio, proportion, decimals, fractions, and percentages.

Electrician's Mates in the lower pay grades generally perform the routine duties, while those in the higher pay grades perform more technical duties and instruct and supervise the others.

### WORK ASSIGNMENT

Electrician's Mates serve on all types of ships and at naval shipyards and bases. It is the basic policy of the Navy to rotate its personnel between sea or advanced base assignments and assignments within the continental limits.

Electrician's Mate standing watch at a distribution board in a battleship

## QUALIFICATIONS AND PREPARATION

Candidates for the School for Electrician's Mates must qualify on the Navy Arithmetic Test, which measures the ability to use numbers in practical problems; and on the Navy Mechanical Test, which measures potential ability for work of a mechanical nature, and indicates the extent of familiarity with mechanical and electrical tools, principles, and operations.

School courses in electrical shop, practical and shop mathematics, and physics are helpful. Previous experience in electrical work is advantageous.

## TRAINING GIVEN

Upon entering the Navy all personnel are sent to a Recruit Training Center for fourteen weeks of indoctrination and basic training, guidance, and classification. Upon completion of this period, training for the work of Electrician's Mates is provided in Navy Training Schools, through on-the-job training, and through the study of training manuals furnished by the Navy. Some of the areas covered in the school for Electrician's Mates are as follows:

(1) Fundamentals of electricity

(2) Electric properties of wires and cables

(3) Principles of batteries

(4) Fundamentals of magnetism

(5) Electrical measuring instruments and their applications.

(6) Fundamentals of electrical equipment such as generators and motors

(7) Principles of D.C. and A.C. circuits.

(8) Elementary mathematics and physics which include factoring, decimals, percentage, force and motion, and stress

(9) Soldering and brazing of electrical equipment.

### PATH OF ADVANCEMENT

| | |
|---|---|
| *Seaman Recruit or Fireman Recruit*<br>*Fireman Apprentice*<br>*Fireman* | See Brief No. 63 |
| *Electrician's Mates Third Class*<br>*Electrician's Mate Second Class*<br>*Electrician's Mate First Class*<br>*Chief Electrician's Mate (Acting)*<br>*Chief Electrician's Mate* | |
| *Warrant Officer*<br>*Commissioned Warrant Officer*<br>*Commissioned Officer* | See Brief No. 65 |

## RELATED NAVAL OCCUPATIONS

Aviation Electrician's Mate (AE) (See Brief No. *53*)

Construction Electrician's Mate (CE) (See Brief No. *41*)

Interior Communications Electrician (IC) (See Brief No. *34*)

## RELATED CIVILIAN JOBS

Training and experience in the Navy provide personnel with the background, skills, and knowledge for many civilian occupations. The extent to which they will be prepared or qualified for these occupations will depend to a great extent on the breadth of their Navy experience and the degree of advancement they have achieved, as well as upon any occupational or apprenticeship credit granted by civilian authority of one type or another.

Some civilian jobs that are closely related to the ones performed by Electrician's Mates are listed below:

Electrician
Electric Motor Repairman
Electrical Repair Shop Foreman
Electrical Equipment Inspector
Electrical Appliance Serviceman
Ship Electrician
Electrical Repairman
Electrical Instrument Repairman

## EMERGENCY SERVICE RATINGS

In time of national emergency this occupation will be sub-divided into the following emergency service occupations.

Electrician's Mate P (Power and Light Electrician) (EMP)

Electrician's Mate S (Shop Electrician) (EMS)

Electrician's Mates checking a motor

*This is one of 67 Vocational Information Briefs covering the major job opportunities in the Navy. For further information contact the Vocational Information Officer at the nearest U. S. Navy Recruiting Station.*

# APPENDIX II

## Extract From The Shipboard Training Manual

LEADERSHIP. One of the major fields of knowledge in which every officer, petty officer, and petty officer striker must be trained is administration and supervision, if they are to fulfill the function of a leader, that is, to get the job done through people. Any supervisor must have five classes of knowledge. They are:

(1) Knowledge of the job which he is to supervise and a reasonable amount of skill in the performance of that job.

(2) Knowledge of policy (regulations and standard operating procedures) sufficient to enable him to interpret and administer that policy.

(3) Knowledge of how to handle men in such a way as to get the greatest possible production. It is evident that the relationships of the leader with his men will have a direct bearing on morale, over-leave, and reenlistment. Low morale, high over-leave rate, and low percentage of reenlistment may all be evidences of poor leadership and will adversely affect production and operation. This very broad topic may be further divided into many sub-topics such as:

(a) Effect of "example."

(b) "Consistency" of discipline.

# APPENDIX II

## Extracts from the Preliminary Training Manual

[illegible]. One of the major fields of knowledge in which officers, their wives, and their children should be trained is propaganda and counter-propaganda. It may act to further the function of a leader. That is, it may be [illegible] through people. Any counter-propaganda also plays an important role. They are:

(1) Training of the Jew which is to be effective and a measurable success of which is the responsibility of the Jew.

(2) Creation of public institutions and educational institutions (non-Jewish) sufficient in number and to issue news and propaganda that [illegible].

(3) Knowledge of how to handle and to know a Jew so as to get the greatest material possibilities. It is evident that the relationship of the Jewish girl and boy will have a direct bearing on morals, over-lords, and revolutionary movements. High over-lords exist, and the government or organization and will be evidence of poor intelligence and will [illegible] action [illegible] and operation. This may [illegible] right and to further direct [illegible] and [illegible] and [illegible]

(4) Control of Communism.

(5) Investigation of activities.

(c) need for "feeling of security."

In brief, anything affecting the mental, moral, or physical well-being of his men is the concern of the leader.

(4) Knowledge of job methods. This involves shop or work area arrangement, assigning men to jobs, and otherwise carrying the work with the greatest possible efficiency.

(5) Knowledge of instructional methods. The bringing of each man to his maximum operational efficiency through training is the direct and immediate responsibility of the supervisor. This involves stimulating the man to a desire to further his own career through self-study and improvement.

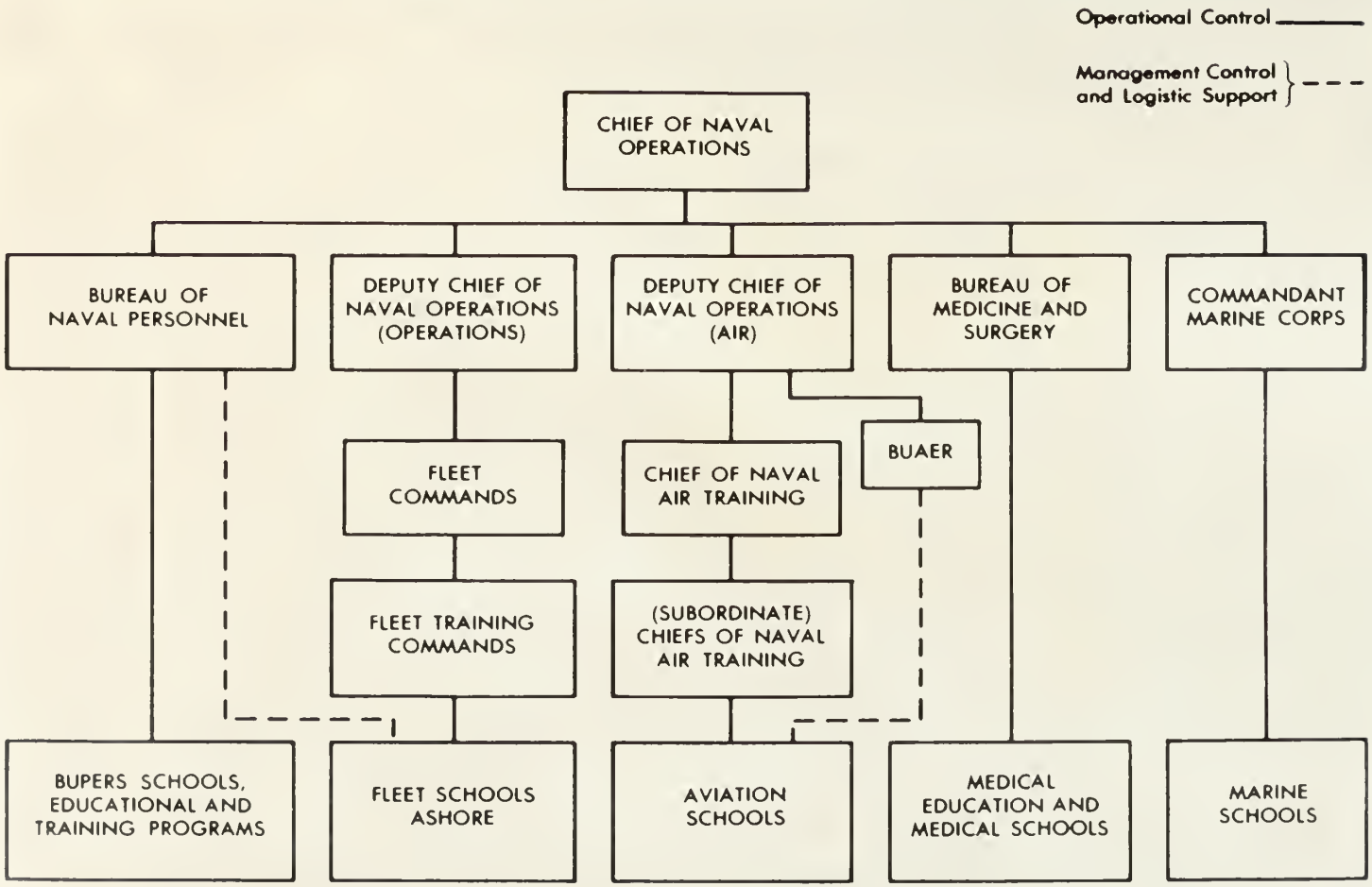


Chart showing the placement of education and training responsibilities in the naval establishment. For simplicity, material bureaus, such as BuShips, BuOrd, and BuDocks, which provide technical guidance and training equipment to schools as appropriate have been omitted from this chart.

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MY MA 67 15910
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